

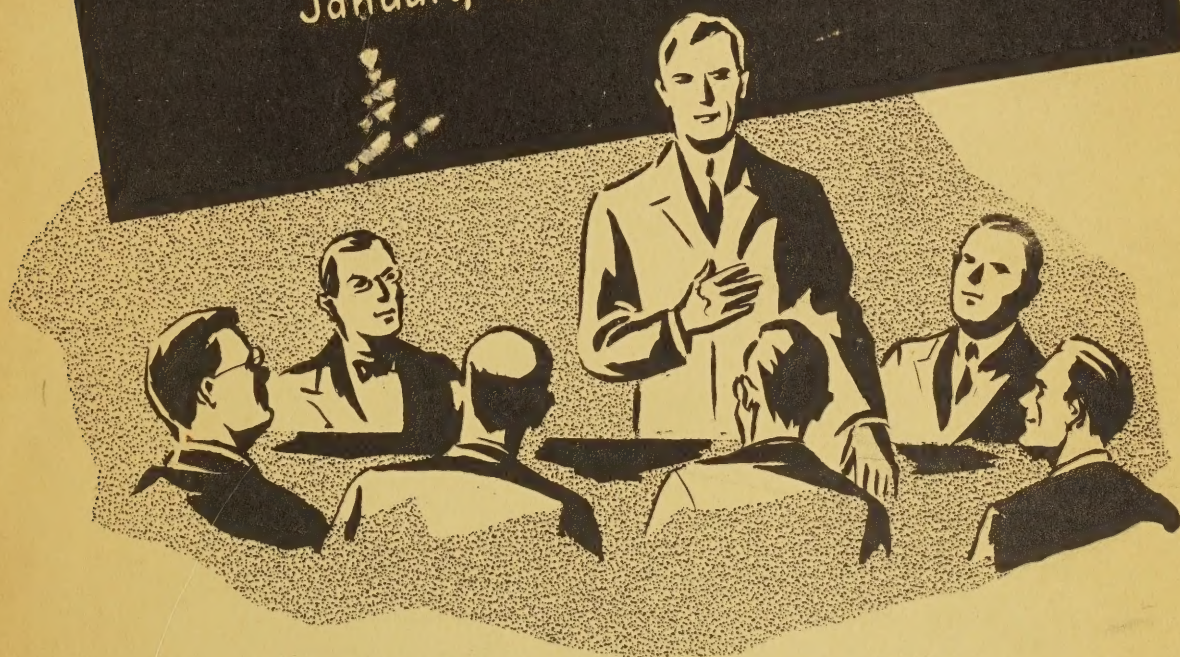
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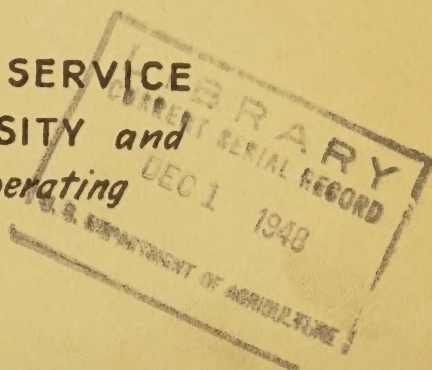
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Administrative Workshop

Baton Rouge, Louisiana
January 26 - February 5, 1948



COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE
LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY and
FARM FOUNDATION, cooperating



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The workshop was managed by a committee consisting of Director Sanders of Louisiana State University, the four field men of the Federal Service, Mr. Leagans, and the chairman and secretary of each workshop group. This Committee met Sunday evening, January 25, to discuss the general operation of the workshop and to plan the boundaries of the work of the workshop groups. It met intermittently throughout the workshop as problems arose.

After the first day Dr. Egger's number was first on the program. It was followed by general discussion. The general session recessed at 10:15 and reassembled in workshop groups. The supplementary lecture was given to the general session at 1:30. The general session again recessed at 3:15 to reassemble in the workshop groups at 3:30.

The entire group, including the wives, were entertained by the faculty of Louisiana State University at a dinner Monday evening. At the dinner, Frank W. Peck, Managing Director of the Farm Foundation and a former Director of Extension in Minnesota, was presented with a Certificate of Recognition by Miss Ellen LeNoir, Vice Grand Director, on behalf of the Grand Council of Epsilon Sigma Phi. Dr. H. W. Stokes, President of the University, gave a most inspiring address. At a Friday evening session a colored movie on points of interest in Louisiana was shown. This movie was prepared by the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey. Following the movie Dan M. Braum, Office of Personnel, U. S. Department of Agriculture, showed a series of slides which outlined very briefly the functions of the various bureaus of the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

THE REPORT

This report contains the lectures or lecture outlines as presented. Also, the committee reports as prepared by the several committees and revised and adopted in general session. It was assembled and prepared for publication by Karl Knaus, who acted as general manager of the workshop. Fred C. Jans, Chas. E. Potter, and Chas. A. Sheffield, assisted with the preparation of the reports of the committees on which they served as consultants. The drawings are by G. Lenore Power and W. D. Cratty of the Extension Service Art Unit.

LECTURES

One lecture was given at each morning session followed by general discussion and committee work. A supplementary lecture was given at each afternoon session followed by general discussion and committee work. In this report the series of lectures given by Dr. Egger are grouped together for continuity. The others follow in the order given.

CURRENT PROBLEMS IN EXTENSION ADMINISTRATION

M. L. Wilson

I had hoped that I would be able to participate for the full 10 days of this workshop and profit from it along with all of you. The unexpected happened, however. It was with considerable regret I learned that the hearings before the House Appropriations Committee would start today. I cannot tell the outcome or how long and how rapidly the committee will move in these hearings. In former years representatives of the Extension Service have appeared on the second or third day, and sometimes not until the tenth day. I will, however, have to return to Washington today in order to be in Washington when Extension is asked to present its testimony.

First of all let me express, on behalf of those of us in the Department of Agriculture, our sincere appreciation to those people and institutions through whose cooperation this workshop has been made possible. The Farm Foundation has been of great assistance in helping to assemble a staff and facilities that would have been impossible without its help. The personal leadership of Mr. Frank Peck, Managing Director of the Farm Foundation, and a genuine friend of Extension, has had much to do with insuring a program that has drawn the widest possible attendance to this important gathering. And, if you are pleased, as I am, with local arrangements, you will join me in a sincere expression of thanks to Director Sanders and those here at Louisiana State University who did such a fine job.

It is fortunate that we have a range in the ages of Extension administrators attending this workshop. We have with us some veteran directors who have accumulated a great deal of wisdom in a generation or more of directing Cooperative Extension Work. Also, we have many younger administrators whose professional background and training have prepared them for their responsible administrative posts. All are confidently expecting, as a result of this workshop, to improve their contributions to the Cooperative Extension Service.

The questions I will raise at this time are, I am sure, in the minds of all directors. I would like to state these questions briefly and, perhaps, point out some of the perplexities in them, and then express some personal opinions regarding them.

Psychologists tell us that when we make decisions, those decisions are not the working of the cells in the forepart of man's brains; our minds don't quite work that way. This thing called the subconscious mind is like a battery. Activities such as this workshop are not so much a process of loading up the mind with new knowledge, as a means for keeping the battery charged and, therefore, in an active, functioning condition. Step by step, day by day, in making

decisions, those things gained from participation in such activities as workshops are a kind of charging of the battery which later may enable us to make acceptable decisions.

Basic Assumptions

To begin with, I would like to make some basic assumptions.

1. Most of us have generally accepted the objectives in the Kepner Report. I wish all State Extension Services might go through the same process that the members of the Kepner committee went through in compiling their report. Such a process can greatly sharpen the extension program in a State.
2. We should realize that extension work deals with people as well as with things. The Smith-Lever Act seemed to concentrate on things. If we accept the fact that we are dealing with people as well as things, our program at once assumes a far wider scope.
3. There is definitely a democratic pattern in our teaching that is reflected as a mixture of cooperation and joint arrangement with the general public and farm people in extension program development. Though we have a rather well-defined over-all pattern, we have 51 variants -- a slightly different type of program for each of the 51 extension services. That is good. It permits flexibility. I regret that we do not have the research facilities, so that we can make careful studies of each of the 51 variants.
4. In extension administration there are two aspects:
 - a. The policy-making function.
 - b. The management function.

In addition to the formal organization as shown on charts, there is a kind of organization which, I think, characterizes Extension, and which I call the informal organization. The specialist and the supervisor talk face to face. They deal informally with problems of many kinds. We need to think about the informal side of extension work.

5. There is a theory that if we have well trained, able men and women in Extension they can help farm people to solve the basic problems. If these men and women have the essential basic training, practical experience, and integrity of purpose, they are the desirable type of professional leader. It is up to the director, as administrator, to place them in the proper position. Theoretically,

if enough capable professional leaders can be found and placed in the respective problem areas, a director of extension would have the ideal staff.

Matters Affecting Extension Administration

The entire field of adult education, and the Cooperative Extension Service particularly, must take certain realities into account if we are to develop programs that will meet the needs of people in the world of today. Logically they might be stated in the following sequence:

1. The implications of the atomic age. We need to be doing more in the educational field in this respect. What little we have done has indicated that farm people are intensely interested.
2. The Cooperative Extension Service represents the most widespread and penetrating adult educational effort in the world. Some people don't fully appreciate its scope and implications. It is like a boy approaching maturity. He doesn't realize how fast he is becoming a man. In our generation the Cooperative Extension Service has grown to a 60 million-dollar enterprise, with tremendous responsibilities. More responsibilities are being placed on it all the time with many complications and ramifications.
3. The ratio of services demanded to service resources is becoming bigger and bigger. Demand for services is increasing at a much greater rate than are the resources with which to supply this demand. Part of this is due to the changing attitude that comes out of the broadened outlook of farm people.
4. Today we are in a very important post-World War II transition period. Many factors are at work in this period. Having a particular effect on Cooperative Extension work of the future will be current deliberations of the joint USDA-Land-Grant College Committee; the hearings before the Senate and House committees on long-time agricultural policy and programs and on the possible coordination of some agencies; and the findings of the Commission on the organization of the Executive Branch of the Government. Out of all these deliberations will come some changes. Interest in them is evidence that we are in a transition period.
5. Turmoil in the field of education and college curriculum. There is a current uncertainty in, and an investigation of, the subject of what constitutes a desirable college curriculum. How can it meet the atomic age? This turmoil affects extension education. And as far as extension education is concerned, these points arise.

- (a) Recognition of the administrative process and of administration as a science.
 - (b) Out of the analysis of scientific method is developing a process by which human organization can be studied. This means, as far as extension is concerned, that we are passing from the "blacksmith" stage to the "assembly line" technique in education. These developments come from natural causes and do not affect basic principles in the field of education.
 - (c) Specialization in extension work is increasing, and at the State offices there will be more specialization. I think all of us in our administrative positions have a greater responsibility and a more complex job than we used to have.
6. Evaluation of results. This is of tremendous interest for the administrator as well as for the taxpayer and all public bodies. Are we getting our money's worth? Is a good job being done? Much progress has been made in methods of evaluation.
7. Professional training. There is a need for recognition of extension as a highly specialized organization whose personnel requires special training. Just as becoming a doctor requires specialized training and internship, so the extension teacher also requires highly specialized training and field experience. Highly specialized people for extension work cannot be adequately prepared in 4 years of college work.

Problems Requiring Administrative Consideration and Solution

Extension administrators cannot assume responsibility for solving all the problems affecting the further growth and usefulness of adult education in general, and Cooperative Extension Work in particular. The solution to some of these problems will, as a matter of course, come through the regular channels of policy development. The trend of such development will, however, be determined to a considerable degree by the leadership given to extension work by extension administrators and the professional staffs under them. In the face of the fundamental problems and realities I have stated, however, the following is a list of problems to be considered primarily by administrators, for which the solution can be found through effective administrative action and leadership:

1. Programs. In this atomic age, how broad should the extension program be? In the past, ours has been the field of helping people solve technical farm and home problems.

Now citizenship and the place of agriculture and the farmer in society are problems with which farm people and the Extension Service must likewise be concerned. How much individual service should Extension render to farmers? Should they pay for part of it? How broad should the program be? If it is to broaden out, it must draw from the college a great deal more than it has in the past. If it will broaden out, it will also make greater demands on the colleges and the Department of Agriculture for scientific help and services beyond the purely physical sciences.

2. What should be the status of the Mount Weather agreement?
The whole theory of that agreement is, that extension work represents education and planning. Dr. Hardin of the University of Chicago has criticized individual farm planning. On this point I disagree with him. However, he goes on to say that in a democracy the critical function that goes with planning is the most important function of all. Planning is an important function in the Extension Service. Extension makes a master plan on the State level and on the county level. In making this plan, it continually evaluates the results, thus making possible constructive criticism." If Extension is doing the master planning and policy making in democratic society through carrying the stream of democratic education, it must establish a cooperative relation with the action agencies at the policy-making levels of government.
3. Policy problems in the administrative level above the director's office. This matter of education of the "bosses" is as important as the education of the "masses." It is a problem involving skill and tact in building good relationships with administrative superiors who, under our system of representative government, must be responsible to the public. I recognize the problem. The most successful solution, in my judgment, has been found by those directors who have stressed professional competence and objectivity among their personnel and, thereby have inspired public confidence in extension work.
4. Problems of relationships between supervisor and specialists. The problem is more obvious in some States than in others and quite likely more acute with the older people than with the younger. In a large and more widely spread out organization, we cannot operate as we did when we were younger. Orderly procedure is essential in carrying on extension work today. We must have acknowledged programs. We cannot administer programs and supervise people separately. The specialist must feel that it is to his advantage to be a part of an agency with a program bigger than he himself could carry. I am of the

- opinion that this problem will become less and less serious as we go ahead. In the integrated farm-family approach we are making some progress. The organization approach, rather than the individual approach, is important here.
5. Work load. We must have a lot more money if we narrow this ratio between demand and resources. The potential in the demand group is greater than in the financial resources group. I hope you will get into a discussion of how to get more money without hurting anyone else; also how flexibility in the budget can be increased.
 6. The director's office. In our complex organization, we have all kinds of relationship problems arising from the fact that the public wants to talk with the top man. More delegation is at least a partial answer. We have not solved that problem by any means.
 7. Supplementary funds. In connection with this matter of getting money, it has recently been asked, "Should we have a national 4-H Club foundation?" This raises the further question, "Should there be a National Extension foundation? -- State extension foundation?" These are problems worthy of a great deal of consideration.
 8. Extension research. Should there be a group working on research and evaluation in every State Extension Service? I believe there should. We need the best kinds of check-ups for the purpose of planning how better to do extension work in the future. This means some modification of our organization. Training of our people will be increasing, depending upon expansion of our research work. What newer or better ways can be devised to improve extension work?

Can mass media be used to narrow the ever-widening gap between services demanded and resources available? I have learned a new expression: "Radio farm visits." Lee Somers, vegetable gardening specialist in Illinois, has so designed his radio programs that he calls them "radio farm visits." He discusses his subjects in such a way on the radio that his listeners think they are listening to him in person. "Radio farm visits" is a use of mass media. A radio station in Wisconsin states that 43,000 4-H Club members in the schools listen to its weekly 4-H program every Monday morning at 9:30.

9. The extension staff. What are the chief lessons we have learned out of the farm labor program? The farm labor program mixed up the Extension Service somewhat and I think it was a pretty good thing. We found that extension personnel are adaptable, and the public learned that

extension can carry out an effective "action" program. Programs in marketing, housing, health, and rural youth, are examples that challenge our established ways of doing things.

10. How can we continue to operate the kind of Extension Service we want to operate and do as much work as we have been doing on 60-cent dollars? The immediate problem before each extension director is embodied in this question. This is first on the list of personnel headaches.

As I see them, these are a few of the problems with which extension administrators are faced. They will not all be solved in the same way in all the States. Your attention to them during the workshop sessions will bring forth many worthwhile, usable suggestions.

I. THE JOB OF THE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATOR IN A CHANGING WORLD

Rowland Egger

As we edge toward the midpoint of the century I think it might be profitable to cast a backward glance at the development of public administration in the United States, to give some thought to our beginnings, and perhaps a little prayerful consideration to our destiny. It would be interesting to discuss with you the course of events, recounted in a very fascinating way in the first volume of Leonard D. White's historical study (due from the press in a few weeks) of the development of public administration in this country, which even in the infancy of the Republic indicated clearly that whatever changes might be rung on the character of administration its scope was steadily to be expanded. But this would run far beyond the limits of the time available for an introduction to our work, and probably far beyond the limits of your interest in the history of American public administration. So I suggest that we settle for a fairly rapid overview of the major movements which have affected the job of the public administrator since the turn of the present century.

In the forty-eight years covered by this arbitrary chunk of historical time, I distinguish four major periods. The first begins with the turn of the century and lasts until about 1913. The second extends from 1913 until 1933. The third covers roughly the period from 1933 to 1942. We are still deep in the heart of the fourth period.

In 1900 the people of the United States had just re-elected William B. McKinley to the presidency, and in so doing had reaffirmed their faith in the gold dollar as the cornerstone of American democracy. Victoria Regina was on the British throne, the living embodiment of the narrow and fusty political, economic and social structure which had been erected on the ruins of the Napoleonic Empire. In the United States the Indian Territory had been thrown open and many of the victims of the crash of 1893 were painfully building new lives for themselves in Oklahoma, from whence they were to be evicted by the dust storm of thirty years later. Immigration from Europe was virtually unlimited, and every ship brought more and more people to do our dirty work. The railroads were the dominant factor in the life of the nation, and pretty well regulated the volume and direction of flow of both population and capital. The country was more confident than it had ever been before, or than it was destined ever to be again, of its place in the sun and of the righteousness of its way of life. Lincoln Steffens and his associated muckrakers had hardly begun their work, and the public generally was either unaware of or completely indifferent to the tawdriness and corruption of its social institutions.

Although the proverbial man in the street at the turn of the century would probably have mouthed, if he had been compelled to

articulate his convictions, something very much like the anti-expansionist views of government expressed in the then popular books by Sumner on What Do Social Classes Owe Each Other? and by Herbert Spencer on Man Versus the State, the scope of public administration was being enormously expanded under his very nose. But in the main government operated, and the public administrator was concerned, with physical things. He was building bridges and highways, planning and constructing public buildings, building waterworks, digging ditches and laying water and sewer mains. A rich and growing country, just recovered from a financial panic which, of course, could never come again, demanded physical facilities of its government. Credit was unlimited. Bigger and better public improvements were the order of the day and public administrators, not infrequently with the help of crooked contractors and crooked politicians, delivered the goods.

In this fairly sorry scheme of things a few great minds were laying the foundations of modern American farm policy. James Wilson had been named Secretary in 1897, and had already begun the building of an agricultural career service as he interwove in the structure of the Department more and more of the people trained in the land-grant colleges. Research and investigatory activities were increased, new bureaus formed by the consolidation and strengthening of miscellaneous functions - Chemistry, Forestry, Plant Industry and Soils, for example, were established on a parity with the older Bureau of Animal Industry, marketing services were expanded and improved, and the beginnings of a national conservation policy developed. The approach of both the Department and the land-grant colleges was conditioned by the fact that most of their top personnel were natural scientists by training, that they looked at agriculture in the light of a continuously expanding agricultural economy, and of the ideals of the individual farmer-owner-occupier. The relationship of the agricultural economy to the general economic condition of the country, to say nothing of the interdependence of our own agriculture with world economic conditions, and the implications of our transition from a frontier society, were still far in the future. The major preoccupation of the leaders of agricultural thought was the more adequate development of the natural sciences relating to agriculture, in the hope that this knowledge would, through official pamphlets, the press, and the land-grant colleges, and other means of dissemination eventually get into the hands of the farmer in useful form. The Smith-Lever Act had not yet been passed, and although there had been some pilot work done along experimental lines with the Extension idea, the Extension Service had not been born. For that matter neither had I, although honesty compels the admission that this latter deficiency, unlike the need for Extension work, appears to have gone completely unremarked at the time.

Relatively early in the century a new wave of influence, shaping the job and the outlook of the public administrator, may be identified. After the waxing and waning of public interest stimulated by the muck-rakers, the "economy and efficiency" idea in government began to

manifest itself in the establishment of agencies for research in the field of governmental organization and methods. The first of these was the New York Bureau of Municipal Research founded in 1906, which continues to operate with a much broader purpose and objective as the National Institute of Public Administration, under the direction of Luther Gulick. In the forty years which have followed the public administration research movement has spread throughout the country, has been taken up by the universities and philanthropic foundations, and has even gotten into the blood stream of government itself. Somewhere along the line the ideas of Frederick W. Taylor got mixed up in the process of "economy and efficiency" research. When Frederick A. Cleveland was invited by President Taft in 1910 to come from the New York Bureau and direct the work of the United States Commission on Economy and Efficiency the die was cast, and influences set in motion which affect profoundly the lives of administrators even to the present day.

During this period the public administrator lost his hearty and handsome aspects of earlier decades and came to be primarily a person concerned with money. He lived, moved and had his being within the boundaries of a balanced budget. He remodeled his accounting system, which had hitherto resembled fairly closely that of the crossroads general store, and instituted all the budget, purchasing, and other gadgetry of economy and efficiency. This was all to the good, except for the eventual effect it had on the administrative personality. In his obsession to establish a precise and sequential relationship between his financial arrangements and the movement of the moon, "balancing the budget" became to the administrator an end in itself, independent of and in fact superior to the purposes which his organization was supposed to serve. And a balanced budget became a fully adequate counterweight to both a lousy program and inept administration. So far had this intimate tie-up between money and the moon become imbedded in the thinking of both administrators and the public that when the crash of 1929 came and the country began its long descent into the depression it never occurred to anyone to do anything but slash budgets to meet the shrinking revenues, and nobody ever dreamed that by slashing the budgets and taking purchasing power out of the market we were increasing geometrically the rate of revenue shrinkage. But I get ahead of my story.

Turning to the Department of Agriculture, we are again able to discern the beginnings of interests, of approaches to program, and of administrative developments, which seem to anticipate by more than a decade the great changes subsequently to engulf the whole of American public administration. With the advent of Secretary Houston in 1913 the interest of the Department in the "farm outside the fences" came gradually to be articulated and better defined. This resulted only in part from the special interests of the Secretary; the groundwork for the expansion in Departmental interests had been laid in the work done in the land-grant colleges over the preceding decades in the development of the embryonic sciences of farm management, rural economics, and rural sociology. I need do no more to recall their

pioneering work to your minds than list the names of C. H. Cooley, Andrew Boss, George F. Warren, H. C. Taylor, K. L. Butterfield, and Charles J. Galpin in the land-grant colleges, and of course W. J. Spillman, O. C. Stine and O. E. Baker in the Bureau of Plant Industry, to mention only a few of the galaxy of immortals in this early period.

The Office of Farm Management, which had evolved out of the work initiated by Spillman in the Bureau of Plant Industry in 1902, was attached directly to the Secretary's Office in 1914. In this connection Secretary Houston observes as follows in his 1914 report:

"Farm management conceives the farm as a whole. Its problem is not primarily a Plant Industry problem. It is rather a business or economic problem. It is not one for which the agronomist has necessarily the requisite training, although the services of the agronomist as well as the services of experts of other bureaus are invoked. Since its function is that of studying the farm from the business point of view in all its aspects, it seemed advisable to relate the office to that of the Secretary, so that the officers might feel conscious of no bureau limitation. Similar considerations led to the conclusion that the farm-demonstration work should not be attached to a particular bureau. Heretofore, the agents in this work, attached as they have been to the Bureau of Plant Industry, have experienced some embarrassment in demonstrating things coming within the work of other bureaus. Obviously, the farm demonstrator must be prepared to demonstrate anything the department has of value to the farmer. He cannot conceive of the farm partially... The direct farm demonstration work is similar to the work that will be carried on under the extension act, and, as has been stated, arrangements have been made for coordinating it with the work under the extension act."

The Office of Farm Management, which marked the beginning of the planning and programming function in the Department as a general staff activity was, of course, to form the nucleus of operations which were consolidated in 1922 to form the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. It is worthwhile to note that no other agency of the government, not even excluding the Army, had as clear a conception of the nature of general staff work and its place in the departmental structure as did Secretary Houston.

The Extension Act had been passed on May 8, 1914, shortly before the Secretary prepared his report. It is hardly necessary to review this basic legislation before a group of Extension Service administrators, other than to point out that through the mechanism of the grant-in-aid the essential means for the initial organization of a nation-wide attack on the problem of agricultural education at the grass roots, sufficiently elastic to meet the varying conditions throughout the "continental empire," and built upon the principle of county-State-Federal cooperation, were for the first time established. A series of formal agreements between the Department and the land-

grant colleges flowed from the provisions of the Act to the effect that "this work shall be carried on in such manner as may be mutually agreed upon by the Secretary of Agriculture and the State agricultural college or colleges receiving the benefits of this Act." The Act authorized an outright grant to each State, while much larger additional funds were made available upon matching by States "in the proportion which the rural population of each State bears to the total rural population of all the States as determined by the next preceding Federal census," and upon the submission to and approval each year of the "plans for the work to be carried on" by the Secretary of Agriculture. To facilitate the administration of the Act and to bring together the major Federal parties at interest, a new agency, the States Relations Service, was set up, consisting of the Office of Home Economics, the Office of Experiment Stations, and two offices (one for the North and one for the South) of Cooperative Demonstration work.

Secretary Houston himself lists as one of the particularly brilliant jewels of his administrative diadem the establishment of the Extension Service and the Office of Markets and Rural Organizations, and the attachment of the States Relations Service and the Office of Farm Management to the Secretary's Office, along with general departmental reorganization; the improvement of farm credit facilities through the Federal Reserve and Farm Loan Acts, the passage of the Federal Aid Road Act, the Cotton Futures, Grain Standards and Warehouse acts; the expansion of information services and the creation of the Office of Information, and the increase in the Departmental budget from \$24 to \$36 millions.

One of the great milestones in American public administration was the establishment of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics in 1921-22. The implications of this action, which actually did little more than institutionalize, integrate and give added impetus to forces which had been at work within the Department for almost two decades, runs far beyond the Department of Agriculture itself, for in a very real sense the BAE is the symbol and prototype of everything that has subsequently taken place with respect to the study of and orderly planning for the conservation and development of our natural and human resources.

Secretary Houston had in 1919 appointed Henry C. Taylor as Chief of the Office of Farm Management, and Mr. Taylor had associated with himself our honored colleague Mr. Frank W. Peck, then of the University of Minnesota, to work on problems of production costs. L. C. Gray from Peabody College likewise joined the staff and specialized primarily in land economics. C. J. Galpin came from the University of Wisconsin to undertake investigations in rural sociology. A program of committee and conference organization was instituted in a deliberate attempt to establish the proper generalized operating environment for the program contemplated by these men, and was supported by Secretary Meredith, the last Wilson appointee, and by Secretary Henry C. Wallace, Harding's Secretary of Agriculture. On

July 1, 1921, Secretary Wallace appointed Mr. Taylor chief of the new Bureau of Agricultural Economics. The Bureau at its inception had, in addition to Mr. Taylor, two assistant chiefs, a business manager, an employment manager, and about 1,800 employees. Its functions included at the beginning a considerable number of operating duties in connection with Departmental service and regulatory operations, as well as the informational and research activities which have formed the basis of its subsequent development as the greatest of the civil planning agencies of the Federal government.

The first World War had arrested the forces of contraction in the American agricultural economy implicit in the closing of the frontier, but the end of the War brought all these forces, plus a new set of influences engendered by the War itself, into play with redoubled force. Secretary Houston's memoirs contain a passage which pretty well portrays the background against which the BAE began its operations:

"We were no sooner out of the difficulties presented by the high cost of living than we were confronted by a more difficult situation, that caused by the sharp decline of prices of agricultural commodities, about midsummer and thereafter. The first impulse of many who were hit by the declining prices was to turn to the government, and especially to the Treasury, as the sole recourse for their salvation. This disposition had developed before the war. It was reinforced during hostilities. I was flooded by letters demanding that the Treasury do something. Many delegations appeared, insistently urging that the Treasury see that the high prices that had prevailed were maintained, and even demanding that in some way they be enabled to secure even higher prices."

There were other factors as well. Export markets for agricultural products collapsed because of the liquidation of the European nations as creditors during the war, and their lack of dollar resources through the curtailment of capital and interest credits due them from this country. Fear of their positions in the event hostilities were resumed also led European governments to autarchical philosophies and agricultural subsidies which closed American agriculture out of the foreign market. Meanwhile the farmer saw his high-priced war-acquired land collapse in value, while his carrying charges remained static. He also saw other segments of the national economy wax richer and richer behind the protective tariff walls. Beginning first in the wheat and cotton regions, but rapidly extending to virtually all areas and sectors of the agricultural economy, the pinch began to tell on the farmers, on banks, on retailers, on mail order houses, on farm machinery manufacturers, and, in due course, even on the churches, schools and colleges.

The establishment of the BAE, with its susceptibility to new ideas and new approaches to farm problems, came none too soon. Its new operating environment demanded, and to a surprisingly large degree secured, a broader economic and social approach to problems of agricultural economics. It was compelled to restudy farm prices and costs in relation to more general price trends, production trends, planting and breeding intentions, market and demand trends, etc., as these factors functioned in a radically changed national and international political economy. In placing its work in agricultural economics against the background of general economic conditions, the Bureau could not but influence tremendously thinking about farm policy and farm aid. As it went about its business of measuring costs and income "outside the fences" it invited comparison and comments, and it was not long before agricultural leaders were thinking in terms of "parity prices," "equality for agriculture," and, I regret to record, "making the tariff effective for agriculture."

The establishment of the Agricultural Outlook Report service in 1923 was another important sign of the time. The institution of this service illustrates very significantly not only the development in thinking about the role of government in agriculture, but also the catholicity of the Departmental clientele. Outlook reports had as their primary purpose the facilitation of production adjustment to trends in supply, demand, costs and price levels. Some of the people served by the department felt that their interests would be adversely affected by the publication of any data along these lines. It was undoubtedly true that a good many processors and distributors had a vested interest in the ignorance of the farmers about these matters, and they were quite correct in their estimate of at least the short-run effect of the program. Others felt that the publication of data on available supply would effect adversely prices to the farmer or some other group. Thus, it is seen, the simple task of supplying information runs to the very heart of departmental purpose, policy, and politics. Of course the Crop Reporting Service, which in fifteen years will celebrate its centennial, is very much more packed with dynamite. The interest of the Bureau during these years in the major pathological regions and land boom areas, as well as in world conditions as evidenced by the organization of the Foreign Agricultural Service are significant indications of the orientation of its program and activities.

The minute examination of the development of the BAE is beyond the scope of this discussion. It is important in the Department because it represents and symbolizes the efforts of the entire Department and its associated agencies in the States to find their way to a more acceptable scheme of social policies and administrative values than had hitherto been realized. It is important in the government and in public administration generally because it directs attention to the most significant aspect of the administrative function in modern society.

The crash of 1929 and the resulting economic depression were destined in their longer reaches to alter again the preoccupations of the public administrator. It took four years of human misery, of bonus marches, of starvation in the midst of plenty, and of deteriorating national morale; but eventually the government, after a purge at the polls, began again to assume responsibility for governing. As the upshot of an enormous amount of improvisation and playing by ear the public administrator found himself concerned not mainly with materials, and not mainly with money, but with men. Moreover, his problem was not limited to the men he had been accustomed to dealing with - the men he directed in the process of building the roads and bridges and sewers, or the men who helped him collect the taxes and keep the accounts, or even the men whose money he took to support the government. He found himself dealing with much larger groups of men, and from a completely different point of view. For the first time since the death of Abe Lincoln, the public administrator found himself dealing face-to-face with the problem of men as human beings. About this time the gold dollar also lost most of its paramount status as the cornerstone of the "American way." The history of this period of our national history is too recent to require comment, beyond listing a few of the programs - the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, the Public Works Administration, the Civil Works Administration, the Works Progress Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, and the Social Security program.

The Agricultural Marketing Act of June 15, 1929 had recognized the special problem of the agricultural economy, which began to exhibit marked pathological symptoms substantially in advance of other sectors of the economy for reasons which have already been touched upon, had created a Federal Farm Board with authority to establish commodity stabilization corporations and to recognize and collaborate with farmers' cooperative associations, and had established a revolving fund of \$500 millions for loans to cooperative associations and commodity corporations. Moreover, a number of agricultural leaders in the Department, in the States, and among the farm pressure groups, had for quite a while been giving concentrated attention to the basic factors in agricultural maladjustment, and had developed the elements of programs for its amelioration. Among these were our friend M. L. Wilson, who had learned about wheat the hard way as a farmer, county agent, and economist in the Montana State Agricultural College, and who from the vantage-point of a division chief in the BAE had been able to amalgamate his own experience into an overall view of the requirements of a comprehensive program of agricultural readjustment; when the time came he was to supply a large amount of the thinking that went into the Agricultural Adjustment Act. Another was Howard R. Tolley. W. J. Spillman had published his Balancing the Farm Output as early as 1927. Chester Davis, another Northern Great Plainsman, active in the farm organizations, was an important figure in the formulation of the expanded agricultural adjustment program. In this connection it is interesting to note Mr. Davis' remarks with respect to the 1929 Marketing Act:

"The virtue of the measure is that it seeks to increase farmers' incomes, not at the expense of other classes, but by improvements in the marketing process, along with which must almost necessarily be developed, as a condition for success, some control of output. I believe the principle is sound, however imperfect the means may prove to be. I am hopeful that good will come out of it, but I feel that no such measure can fully meet the real requirements of our agricultural situation, to say nothing of farmers' hopes."

The Agricultural Adjustment Act and its correlative programs demands our close attention for a number of reasons. In the first place it established a system of production and land use control by a system of voluntary cooperation of farmers directly with the Federal government. In the second place, it brought the Department of Agriculture into a direct contractual relationship with individual farmers. While the county agents were in many cases closely identified with the actual administration of the program, through their work as secretaries of the local production control committees, and were specifically charged with all aspects of educational and informational work in connection with the furtherance of the program, the "lines of relationship" ran directly from the Department to the farmer. In the third place, it instituted for the first time in the history of the United States elections or referenda under the direct auspices of the United States Government, and to cap the climax, under the Executive Branch of the Government. Moreover, after all this smashing of idols, and even after being declared partially unconstitutional, it provided one of the most effective economic programs of the era. The "county agent with a checkbook," to borrow Mr. C. W. Warburton's phrase describing FSA supervisors, may or may not be a permanent and immutable part of the American administrative scene even with respect to soil conservation, but he has demonstrated what can be done in an emergency with imagination, ingenuity, and money.

From an administrative point of view, I am much impressed with the appraisal of Mr. M. A. McCall of the results of the A.A.A. program:

"As a result of the A.A.A. program, every important agricultural county in the United States now has a county agent. The farm people of each county have come to know and rely upon their agent and to use his services as never before. The number of his contacts and his effectiveness have been immeasurably increased because of the program. This must in the end have a profound effect upon agronomic improvements.

"Another most significant development is the County Agricultural Conservation Association with its county planning committee. This committee in each county is charged with administering the program and with working out through

local community committees a balanced soil-building and cropping program for the county, which in turn must be based upon a soundly developed plan for each farm. In some states substantial progress has already been made in farm planning and productivity surveys, which ultimately are certain to be strongly influential in building a sound agriculture. These county committees should become increasingly important in the agricultural set-up in each state. They should become a most effective link in the chain of agronomic improvement.

"Other examples of the effects of A.A.A. impacts on agronomic betterment doubtless could be pointed out..... It is without question a most potent force for implementing soil and crop science. It adds a new element to the previously existing set-up of the state experiment stations, the Extension Services, and the research bureaus of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. Most of us have failed to realize the real necessity for this new element..... Sound agronomy is dependent on and cannot be separated from sound, stabilized economics. Combining the two, the A.A.A. program carries a challenge we cannot avoid."

While critics have rightly pointed out that in counterbalance to the added facilities made available to the Extension Service in consequence of the program there were enormous additional burdens thrown on the Service and that it was to some degree diverted from its older functions, the general consensus as I gather it from people inside the Service and out is that the educational values of the work under the Act were not inconsiderable, and that apart from the environmental improvements to which Mr. McCall refers in his opening paragraph the Service was able to make substantial gains in its teaching objectives through its participation in planning and control operations.

In a hit-and-run commentary such as this, in which we have time to do no more than note briefly institutional origins, it is impossible to follow the mutations in the relationships between and among the Extension Service, the Agricultural Adjustment Agency, the Soil Conservation Service, the FSA etc., through their wartime and post-war experiences. In the time which has been available for the preparation of these talks, I have been able to do no more than convince myself of the richness in administrative experience of these developments, and to what an appetite with no possibility of satisfying it. It is gratifying to observe in the journals of the various learned societies that agricultural administration, particularly in the field, is receiving more and more attention from embryonic doctors of philosophy, and even more gratifying to note that some of the people in the social science staffs at the experiment stations are finding time to analyze the administrative implications of the experience gained in the management of agricultural development and stabilization programs over the past fifteen years. I am impressed with the fact that before very long you will probably have such an ample amount of highly organized and

well documented material relating directly to the administrative aspects of Extension Service management that you will even be able to dispense with the importation of visiting firemen from the fields of political science and public administration.

Before proceeding to the final part of the talk, I should like briefly to call attention to developments during the late thirties in Departmental management, in which the Department of Agriculture set the pace for public administration throughout the country. The fact that the Department of Agriculture is by its very nature an administrative empire rather than a compact, uni-purpose agency, emphasizes the importance of effective general staff work in maintaining unity of policy and integrity of administrative operation. As Undersecretary of Agriculture the distinguished gentleman whom you have just heard (M. L. Wilson) was more responsible than any other single person for welding the Department, under the general supervision of the Secretary, into an effective spearhead of agricultural policy and an administrative mechanism that operated with as much smoothness and precision as any department grounded in the principle of "democracy in agricultural administration," to borrow his own phrase, has any business operating. His administrative leadership within the Department, his effectiveness in White House liaison, and perhaps most important of all his abiding concern with the widening of administrative and social horizons as exemplified in his interest in the Department's Graduate School, in the more adequate acquaintance of top departmental personnel with regional land problems, and in the development of closer relations with the land grant colleges and State personnel generally - all these things are now part and parcel of Departmental tradition.

In addition to the institutional general staff operations handled by the Undersecretary and Assistant Secretary, the Secretary's personal secretariat, headed by Paul Appleby, constituted an interesting and highly effective innovation in administrative management. The development of the system of special advisory aides to the Secretary also supplied an enterprising and instructive administrative experiment, and one which has shed much light on the utilization of special assistants at the top management level. The incorporation of the heads of the auxiliary services, such as budget and finance, research, extension, personnel, information, and law, as well as certain operating heads, such as the Director of Marketing and Regulatory Work, the Director of Foreign Agricultural Relations, and the Land Use Coordinator, into general staff operations was likewise developed to an extraordinarily efficient degree in Departmental management. Moreover, the functioning of our colleague Bill Jump, as the number one man in a triumvirate including the director of personnel and the chairman of the program planning board, which gave to the administrative empire something very close to a general managership is one of the most significant administrative inventions of our time, and one destined greatly to influence Federal departmental management in the future.

Finally, the reconstitution of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics as the central planning agency of the Department, and the creation of the Agricultural Program Board, standing at the apex of a series of state, county, and local planning units, brought to fruition the long series of developments aimed at the establishment of a comprehensive national agricultural planning agency. In the process the BAE was shorn of the various operating functions which had been assigned to it over a long period of years, and its energies were freed to undertake Department-wide national research and planning, calculated to guide the integration of all related activities, and special operations planning was clearly made a responsibility of the line agencies.

I come now to the fourth and last epoch in the evolution of the administrative function. The Second World War has added another dimension to the task of the public administrator. The United States has simultaneously come of age in two spheres. First, it has had forced upon it the realization that it is in and a part of everything that goes on in the world. Not only is isolation unthinkable, but we no longer have the practical possibility of insulating any phase of our national life or our national economy from intimate articulation with world conditions. Problems of foreign and domestic policy no longer exist as such - there is only public policy. Moreover, we have, in a manner of speaking, lost our imagined virginity and become the head of the family of nations in one fell swoop. The United States is the only nation capable, by reason of its resources and productive capacity, of organizing a stable world. The American public administrator, in a word, is obliged not only to learn overnight how to think in world terms, but to learn overnight what British administrators spent two centuries in learning - how to think in terms of world leadership.

Moreover, the public administrator who must now learn to think in terms of world leadership are not solely, or even primarily, administrators and officials of the Department of State. While the exquisite gentlemen of the Foreign Service have an undoubtedly useful purpose to serve in correlating and expediting the conduct of our foreign relations, the real work from now on will fall more and more on personnel in the operating departments. Our foreign problems are no longer political problems. In their essence they are problems of agriculture, of industry, of commerce, of monetary supply, and of educational and cultural affairs. The so called political problem is in the main mere ideological embroidery superimposed upon an underlying pattern of human wants and human needs.

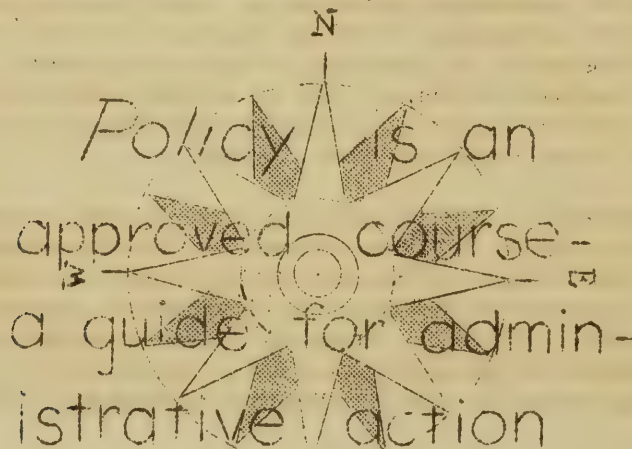
The Department of Agriculture has already made considerable progress in responding to this new dimension of administrative thought and operation. The Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, although laboring under a number of antediluvian limitations imposed by Congress in its appropriations, is fully aware of the responsibilities of American agriculture in the organizing of a stable world. It has achieved a worthy record in its programs of cooperation with Latin

America, in the organization of experiment station systems and in the provision of technical advice in the development of "complementary" agricultural economies in our sister Republics. Latterly it has assumed an important role in other quarters.

The implications of our world position, however, run far beyond the program of the Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, or even of the Federal Department. If there is to be a stable world economy, within which a stable American economy may be built, and within which the American agricultural economy may achieve stability, it must rest upon the knowledge and conviction of the American farmer, and farm woman, and farm boy and girl, that his interest lies in a stable and interrelated world economy.

This is the tedious and infinitely difficult task which you as educational administrators face in the four or five years left to us in which to establish a working peace system. You can make two or four or six blades grow where one grew before, and still fail. You can teach the farm community the agricultural economics of our nationalistic yesteryear, and they will be swallowed up in the holocaust of the next depression and destroyed by the next war. Only a conviction, grounded in a realistic appraisal of where their interests lie, that we must assume our position in the leadership of the nations and meet our obligations in the building of a working peace system and a stable world economy will preserve and defend the welfare of the farm people of this country.

We have seen already what happens when uninstructed and unmandated "statesmen" play politics with human suffering, and engage, for all the world like the CIO and the AF of L, in jurisdictional strikes while Europe collapses into the hopelessness that is the prelude to authoritarianism. In my judgment, the greatest danger to the American farmer today is not high prices for feed stuffs, astronomical labor costs, or even slow automobile deliveries, but a political situation in which he does not know, and cannot vote, his convictions of self interest and social responsibility.



II A. THE PROGRAM RESPONSIBILITIES OF AN ADMINISTRATOR - TO THE PUBLIC

One of the wisest, and I might add one of the kindest, men whom I have ever known once wrote about the topic which this essay seeks to introduce in these words:

The area of administrative responsibility may be viewed as two concentric circles, the one including all those elements of responsibility appertaining to the administration or management of the internal affairs of an organization, the other including those phases of administration concerned with political, social and economic relationships which are external to the organization. Although the latter field has not lacked careful exploration, we still experience no little difficulty in threading the maze of indefinite or inadequately defined relationships, sometimes obscured by vague or even inconsistent pronouncements of courts and legislatures. There is abundant factual evidence to account for the shadowy character of administrative responsibility in the field which is external organization.

(Warner W. Stockberger, "Leadership," in F. Morstein Marx (ed.) Public Management in the New Democracy, pp. 61-62.)

If Warner Stockberger, writing from one of the richest reservoirs of administrative experience and scholarship of our times, found the problem of external responsibility shadowy and elusive, it will perhaps not be taken as a breach of contract that this essay is a little less than utterly lucid and completely definitive on the point. On the other hand, to evade the exploration of the program responsibilities of the educational administrators to the public would be to ignore one of the central and decisive factors in his operating environment; and relegate our discussions to a wholly artificial and unrealistic backwater of mere pedantry. For better or for worse, therefore, we are obliged to recognize the problem and to do the best we can to analyze it in terms of logic and principle.

In beginning our analysis, let us first of all get down to bed rock. We need not waste our time rhapsodizing over that ephemeral wisp of the imagination so dear to the hearts of Fourth of July orators. As nobody understands better than this group, there is no "people" in the generic sense. When we talk about program responsibilities of educational administrators to the public at this workshop, let us pay ourselves the compliment of complete intellectual honesty and admit that in the main we are talking about the well-organized and far from impotent special interest groups which impinge upon, condition, affect, harass, inspire and otherwise manage to relate themselves to almost every waking hour of the extension administrator. I venture to assert that no group of Americans has in the last fifteen years become more adept in the organization and use of collective pressure than our stalwart

defenders of rugged individualism and rock-ribbed self reliance on the farms all over this country. Moreover, nobody has gotten mad at them. Neither Taft nor Hartley have thought to circumscribe their activities. And as far as I know no Federal judge has even dreamed of fining them so much as a thin dime. It may be true that they learned late, but it cannot be denied that they learned exceedingly well. In all this, as well as in other matters of high political import, it is recognized that the Extension Service of course maintained its traditional complete neutrality.

The recognition of pressure groups as important and apparently inevitable elements in the management of our economic and social system apparently goes back to the very beginnings of the Republic. It was James Madison who pointed out that the very oldest Federal departments were involved in the protection, promotion or regulation of "various and interfering interests. . . (which) involves the spirit of party and faction in the necessary and ordinary operations of the government." Charles Beard goes so far as to interpret the Constitution itself as a device by which a special interest group stopped the logical outworking of the American Revolution in mid-stream. The role of interest groups in the national life and the interesting ways in which they go about performing their miracles have been carefully studied by many scholars and researchers, but no one has devised a mechanism by which they can be eliminated, or even by which their impact and influence can be confined to political and legislative spheres.

The problem, in fact, is not one of the fundamental compatibility of interest groups with any theory of administrative responsibility, but rather how to cooperate most effectively and gracefully with the inevitable, and how to turn the energies inherent in the pressure groups into channels contributing to the long-run general welfare. The easiest thing for any extension administrator to do is, of course, simply to ride with the tide as far as interest groups are concerned. This puts a fairly high premium on a certain sort of political sagacity and animal cunning, and involves the development of an ability to guess with far more than average accuracy the last card dealt, but some extension administrators have survived for surprisingly long periods playing this system. It is deficient in that it generally fails to realize anything like the full technical and educational potential of the Extension Service or the full political and educational potential of the agricultural interest groups. The antithesis of this approach is to run the service by the book, and to ignore anything not coming through established channels of communications and lines of command. As far as I can learn no extension administrator attempting to steer this course has lasted for a sufficient length of time to demonstrate the efficacy of the policy as anything more than the shortest path to the nearest exit. The practicalities of constructive cooperation between the educational administrator and his public seem to lie somewhere between these two extremes.

In analyzing this problem of "including the public in," as Sam Goldwyn would phrase it, on program planning, I think we should look at all the alternatives. Some of these alternatives are highly theoretical as dominant patterns of external relationships. On the other hand, I recall with some anguish the number of times in my own administrative experience that I have brushed off a matter at five-thirty in the afternoon as a remote and theoretical contingency, only to discover it roosting on my desk at eight-thirty the next morning as a fait accompli. Moreover, as I have had the opportunity to look at the several patterns of extension administration in a number of States and localities, it seems to me that elements of all the types of interest group participation in programming are found at one place or another, and that while the consultative relationship is the prevailing motif, we cannot close our eyes to other schemes of cooperation which have made their influence felt in certain quarters. Indeed, the entire problem is, in a certain sense, one of balance and degree.

To keep our problem in its proper perspective, it is worthwhile to reiterate that the extension administrator, like any other public administrator, is a creature of the law, charged with the execution of a program established in basic legislation, in appropriation acts, and in a vast array of interstitial rules, regulations, instructions and memoranda. But because the Extension Service is a cooperative undertaking, involving local, State and Federal collaboration, substantial independent responsibility for "grass roots" judgment with respect to specific action programs within the general objectives of the legislation, and of administrative methods for the implementation of these programs, within the bounds of rules and regulations, has been left with State and local directors and agents. It is in this area of "grass roots" discretion that the State and local administrators face their crucial problem in organizing and controlling public participation in programming. Moreover, as I shall subsequently discuss in more detail, extension management has important responsibilities with respect to the shaping and periodic reformulation of basic national agricultural policy, and this must have its roots in reliable mechanisms and relationships for local consultation and participation. The necessity, therefore, for effective public collaboration in programming stems from the fundamental structure of the Extension Service itself, and must be regarded not as a perversion of accepted principles of representative government but as a legitimate and indispensable response to the basic theory of the several monumental statutes which constitute the milestones of Extension Service history.

One of the methods by which interest group participation in programming may be organized is the outright recognition of the Extension Service as a clientele agency. This would not be without precedent in Federal and State government. The clientele agency in its full and malodorous flower is perhaps best represented by the Veterans Administration prior to the Bradley regime. The Children's Bureau and the Office of Indian Affairs are also illustrations in point. A good many

State licensing and regulatory agencies are in fact clientele agencies, largely owned and operated by the people or instrumentalities they are supposed to control. The argument for organization on a clientele basis is of course grounded in the notion that special unprotected or underprivileged and unrepresented groups need special governmental care and attention, in order to equalize competitive conditions or redress social and economic imbalances. From an administrative viewpoint the gravest defect of clientele organization is that it permits many agencies to carry on the same basic functions for the various types and classes of clientele that the government accumulates with distressing rapidity. This defect is in fact largely theoretical. The major objection to clientele organization is political. The clientele or its spokesmen invariably insist upon a dominant voice in the selection of topside personnel and the determination of policy. If you need a gruesome example look at the history of the Veterans Administration under the doubtless beneficent tutelage and guidance of the American Legion. Moreover, clientele organization inevitably leads, sooner or later, to an impossible situation for the top executive, who is confronted with a subordinate owing a higher loyalty than to his administrative chief.

In a certain sense the Department of Agriculture, and especially the Extension Service, is now a clientele agency, but its clientele is so large and diverse in its economic and social interests that no single group is or can be dominant. It does research, provides information and service, and exercises certain regulatory functions with respect to producers, processors, distributors, and financiers, none of whose interests are completely identical and some of whose interests, as you are keenly aware, are directly in conflict. There are strong elements of competition, moreover, among certain specialized commodity producers, processors and distributors. This suggests that unless the Department and the Extension Service are willing to contemplate a drastic narrowing of the service program, the opening of the flood-gates of special interest pressures to the naming of personnel and the dictation of the content of Extension Service policy through outright organization of the Extension Service as a clientele agency would speedily compound anarchy to the complete confusion and frustration of even the most eclectic species of Extension Service management.

Although nothing seems more alien to the thinking of the Extension Service people with whom I am acquainted than the clientele organization approach to extension operations, it is by no means inconceivable that certain national fiscal and economic policies could in time force the Department of Agriculture into the narrow, exclusive, ultra-competitive and self-centered outlook which is characteristic of the clientele agency, and, for that matter, is by no means unknown even among functionally organized agencies which have lost a catholic and inclusive view of the public welfare. While in some cases and for certain limited periods a group purpose may coincide with the general interest, experience teaches us in hard and unequivocal terms that the

basic objective of any interest group is the naming of top personnel and the dictation of substantive policy. Moreover, any governmental agency which becomes the vehicle for the establishment of particular groups in an especially favored status waives any claim to consideration for administrative responsibility for the execution of broader policies of public administration. Here, I suggest, is a useful benchmark for the consideration of the principles which ought to govern the processes of public collaboration in programming - how adequately do these processes correspond to our judgments of the elements which have made the Extension Service great in the past, or which may make the service greater in the future? Criteria such as these, based on a critical valuation of both the successes and failures of the service, throw into bold relief the short-term gains which have sometimes turned into long-term losses, and vice versa.

Another mechanism for "including the public in" which has gained a very considerable vogue in recent years is what is euphemistically called "staffing for points of view." While this device is encountered most frequently in agencies dealing with the interest of labor and of labor unions - not necessarily identical - it is by no means unknown elsewhere in the government. It proceeds from the realization that governmental decisions, like most other decisions, are strongly influenced by the personalities of those doing the deciding; that government decisions are normally the outcome of a very considerable amount of informal discussion and consideration; and that opportunity for even limited participation in the formative and developmental stages of administrative policy is frequently much more valuable than any amount of participation in the ex post facto review process. There is a strong element of validity in this urge for participation in the planning and programming operation. As each of you must have observed on many occasions, group pressure has functioned very effectively and sometimes very constructively in correcting unrecognized injustices implicit in proposed programs. It has frequently made available to government agencies, including the Extension Service, special knowledge and experience not ordinarily encompassed by the staff. It has helped to avoid many mistakes and to facilitate the reconciliation and integration of diverse viewpoints at the policy and program stages.

There is an obverse side of the medal. The appointment of persons to administrative positions because of interest group affiliations collides squarely with the idea of a professional Extension Service personnel holding office by merit as established in competitive examination. Even if the technical problem could be overcome - and it cannot be doubted that on many occasions vocational experience acquired through work with interest groups goes hand in hand with a high quality of technical proficiency - there remains the fundamental dilemma of the integration into the service of an employee with a higher loyalty. This is neither the time nor the place to review the extensive experience of government in wartime with its "staffing for points of view" in the War Production Board, the Office of Defense Transportation, the Office

of Price Administration, and in many other agencies. The record is fairly clear: (1) the practice, almost without exception, leads to serious political and administrative difficulties; (2) on the whole, the interest group employee who was actually assimilated into the service failed to continue to satisfy the group which he was supposed to represent, and whose point of view he was supposed to reflect, since the interest group almost invariably lost confidence in its representative the moment he became an honest-to-God-bureaucrat; (3) in virtually no instance in which the "point of view" appointee remained true to his interest group was he able to adjust himself to the channels, procedures and pattern of authority required within the agency which he supposedly served; (4) nowhere were devices developed which effectively obviated this fundamental dilemma. It was, in fact, a fairly frustrating experience all round.

A third device of interest representation, and one encountered with some frequency in State government, is that of appointment to administrative boards on the basis of special connections or affiliations. At the Federal level this tendency may be identified, but it is in no sense as important as at the State level. In point of fact the interest group aspect of "availability" is an implicit promise - sometimes minor but often major - in appointments to boards and commissions at the State level which are ostensibly made either on a straight partisan or even non-partisan basis. On occasion the appointing authority is enjoined to include certain interest representations, and boards or commissions must contain a producers' member, a consumers' member, and a public member, for example. Not infrequently interest groups have attempted to put teeth into what tends to be merely a pious injunction by providing for interest group nomination of board or commission members, from which list of nominations the appointing authority makes final determinations. But whatever the machinery, leading officials of the Grange or of the Farm Bureau tend, with almost monotonous regularity, to turn up where anything is cooking along agricultural lines. I have not had the opportunity to study the phenomenon in the nation as a whole, but within a relatively narrow limit the appointments of an organization Governor in the one State with which I have some familiarity are fairly well predictable - in fact, few politicians will give odds or even bet on appointments within the several sectors of State administration where the metes and bounds of pressure groups are well staked and sharply defined, because the conclusion tends so consistently to have been foregone.

Volume-wise the bulk of our experience with out-and-out interest group participation in administrative boards lies in the wartime experience with labor-management relations. It is enough to point out that even the exigencies of survival were not sufficient to produce, either in the National Defense Mediation Board or the succeeding National War Labor Board, a sufficiently rapid reconciliation of conflicting interests to avoid vexatious and dangerous administrative delays and the virtual suspension of collective bargaining. About

the only accomplishment of the War Labor Board, other than holding the Board itself together and creating a fairly flimsy facade of external unity, was the maintenance-of-membership formula. The expectation that collective bargaining procedures developed under the Board's aegis would provide the foundation for orderly postwar labor relations dissolved almost as soon as victory in the Pacific was assured. In short, despite a moral environment which should have made failure almost impossible, the War Labor Board functioned with a singular lack of distinction.

We come now to the third aspect of interest group participation in program formulation - the principle of consultation. It is difficult to know what to say concerning the role and limitations of the consultative principle to a group of administrators who spend most of their working days engaged in the practical application and management of this type of relationship. Although most of us fly pretty much by the seat of our pants in handling consultative relationships, there is a fairly pretentious body of social and political theory, and a certain amount of procedural gadgetry, which has been developed over the years in which the engineering of human consent and cooperation has been a self-conscious process. Leaving aside the guild socialists of the Middle Ages and the neo-corporatists who at a much later date forged the apology for modern Italian fascism, it is interesting to note that even so uninhibited a philosopher as Harold Laski, after tiptoeing down the primrose path of economic cameralism has come back to the fold with a renewed emphasis upon the indispensability of a common unifying democratic faith as the element of central importance in a free society. Indeed, it is from this presupposition of a democratic faith that the consultative process derives both its logical validity and its principal usefulness.

The economic argument for interest group consultation rests upon the rather simple observation that there is a sort of economic federalism and mutuality of interaction between government and the broad economic groupings in which the people spend most of their daily lives and through which they experience their contacts with the political process. It may be buttressed ethically by pointing to the importance of achieving as wide a basis as possible of participation in governmental affairs - an unquestioned ethical good in the decalogue of democracy. Politically it has a very strong appeal for a person whose general convictions lie in the direction of social democracy, because it emphasizes and accords with the notion of a vigorous and autonomous community life.

From the administrative standpoint it is extremely important to realize clearly and explicitly the preconditions and limitations of the consultative process, as well as its uses and techniques. In the first place, the area of uniformity and the area in which local or functional differentiations are to be permitted must be clearly marked out by an authority higher than that of the extension administrator - or anyway someone superior to the State director of extension. On the whole, this precondition is fairly well met in the basic legislation with the

administration of which the Extension Service is concerned. Second, the extension administrator must decide what interest groups are to be consulted with respect to what aspects of policy and program, and how the various interest groups are to be balanced against and related to each other. Finally, the modus procedendi for consulting effectively the various interest groups, and for arriving at the delicate quantitative and qualitative considerations which go into the mutual adjustment of the often conflicting interests of the several groups, must be carefully developed and managed with consummate skill and artistry.

The mere process of holding hearings or calling conferences does not constitute public participation in program planning. Formal arrangements do not automatically produce the sense of participation which is the essence of social and public morale. This sense of participation proceeds from cooperative action within defined and well-understood conditions, and involves mutual responsibilities on the part of leaders and members of interest groups, the extension administrator, and the Extension Service staff. When these conditions have been met, when mutual confidence and tolerance have been established, and when all the participants have learned how to achieve their several interests by effective compromise and integration of policies, the essentials of the consultative process will have been achieved.

The consultative process presupposes the existence of a firm and unifying democratic faith. It also presupposes a common recognition by all the participants that a process of careful and scientific study and frank and open discussion is the only effective manner in which to plan and program the way to the realization of a common public purpose. It can achieve nothing in an atmosphere of intransigence. It demands full and mutual respect and recognition of the responsibilities which must be met by group leaders and by administrators. It requires complete renunciation of the "fast ball" philosophy - it is a process of working with other to achieve a product which is as satisfactory as possible to all participants. It involves the playing of all cards face up - of completely fair dealing with respect to information on purposes, methods, administrative requirements, etc., which may be involved in the implementation of the program. Finally, it calls for ample opportunity of criticism and review within the objectives of the consultative process; if there is no right of filibuster there is equally no place for Star Chamber proceedings at any stage of the operation.

Finally, the wise administrator will carefully circumscribe the substance of the consultative procedure. He cannot afford to reopen in the china shop of extension administration the questions of policy left unreconciled in the political bull ring. Interest groups cannot be permitted to carry the battles which they have lost on the hustings into the area of administrative operations, there to attempt to accomplish by administrative orders what they were refused by statute. Extension administrators will not attempt to recoup their program losses to legislative or other superior authorities by the manipulation of local interest groups under the guise of the consultative process.

Pendleton Herring, in his very profound and provocative book called Public Administration and the Public Interest, sums the thing up as follows:

The relations between the farmers of the nation and the officials concerned with their welfare demonstrate certain dangers as well as great potentialities for the future. If officials are really to promote the welfare of a class, they must develop a very close relationship with its individual members. They must awaken these people to their own best interests. They must arouse them to concerted action. This necessitates an elaborate organization. It means that officials must lead and initiate. It places the power of pressure groups behind the machinery of bureaucracy in order to carry through a program for benefiting a particular class. Under such conditions, how can democratic control be preserved? The farmers themselves must make their own organization representative. Agricultural pressure groups must be managed by the rank and file.

"How can the general welfare be forwarded? A balance of interests within the administration must be preserved. The general administrative structure must reflect the relative economic importance and social significance of groups that contribute to the general welfare. Unless democratic government can develop such an organization, it cannot carry the burdens that it is at present assuming."

Here, I suggest, are a couple of profoundly solemn thoughts for an extension director in considering his program responsibilities to the public. Is the organization with which he is dealing truly democratic and responsive to the wishes of the rank and file? Does the general structure of his State Extension Service reflect the relative economic importance and social significance of the various groups that contribute to the general welfare - which are not necessarily the groups organized to bring most effective pressure to bear on the extension administrator, and in many States are not even agricultural groups exclusively?

Two additional aspects of the program responsibilities of the extension administrator to the public remain to be dealt with. First, what is the feasible extent and what are the procedures for effectively invoking public participation in the reconsideration and reformulation of basic national agricultural policy? Second, what are the responsibilities of the extension administrator for producing understanding of and support for agricultural policies among the public generally, which is to say among those groups, agricultural and non-agricultural which may not have had occasion to participate directly in the formulation of the policy?

On the first point, I should like to make it clear that I have not come to Baton Rouge to lecture the group of men who, above all others, were primarily responsible for the volte face in American agricultural policy in 1933 on the fine art of peaceful revolution. I am not insensible of the internal stresses and strains which accompanied this transformation, of the heartburnings which beset many extension administrators, nor of the scars that still linger in consequence of this drastic therapy invoked upon the nation's sick agriculture. But the record is clear, and constitutes in the main the most inspiring example of political and economic democracy which the history of this country in peacetime has ever produced.

Now I have never deceived myself that the agricultural program of 1933 sprang full-blown from the brain of Piers Plowman, or even that he actually had much to do with it in the formative stages. Since it marked a very substantial departure from the established policy of centering all the attention of the Department of Agriculture on helping the individual farmer on the farm, and started paying some mind to the welfare of the collective farmer in the national and world market, it must necessarily have had its inception at the one place in the United States where it is possible to get a complete overview of American agriculture - the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. Checked against the findings of the great fact-gathering machinery of the Department, a program was developed which inculcated essentially the economists' and administrators' conception of the public interest and the general welfare. The tenets of democratic fundamentalism were rather drastically altered, because the issues were complex and the cost of ignorance too high for the solution of the problem to be left to the tedious outworking of the normative process at the "grass roots."

Lawrence Sullivan gives us the following transcript of portions of a broadcast by E. A. O'Neal on March 30, 1933:

"At the conference called by Secretary Wallace on March 10, attended by thirty-four farm leaders representing practically every national farm organization in the United States, views were frankly exchanged in an effort to work out an effective program. A committee was appointed, made up entirely of farm leaders, and within two hours it came back with a definite program, which, after discussion, was agreed upon by the group.

"This statement of principles was presented first to Assistant Secretary Tugwell, and then to Secretary Wallace, both of whom approved it. They told us they would henceforth call this program 'their baby,' thus assuming full responsibility. On the next day this program was presented to President Roosevelt by a committee led by Secretary Wallace, of which I was a member. The Department of Agriculture promptly drafted a bill which carried out these principles and submitted it to the President

for his approval. We farm leaders were called in by Secretary Wallace and Assistant Secretary Tugwell to go over the bill, and we gave it our approval. President Roosevelt then promptly forwarded the bill to Congress with a brief message urging its early enactment."

Whether or not the process was as simple and unrehearsed as Mr. O'Neal says in any case the bill was enacted, and although the specific law under discussion, the Agricultural Adjustment Act, was subsequently invalidated by the Nine Old Men the pattern which was profoundly to influence the cooperative formulation and administration of national agricultural policy had been firmly established.

The fact that the program was enacted is not especially significant, any more than that the Agricultural Adjustment Act was subsequently held unconstitutional. What is significant is the pattern of economic planning which the program inaugurated. The objective of the program was to restore the purchasing power of American farmers to pre-World War I levels. To attain this objective the production of certain basic agricultural commodities had to be restricted and controlled. Commodity prices had to be increased, and the consumers convinced that it was to their own best interest to pay more. As Mordecai Ezekiel and Louis Bean phrased it:

"Successful action in correcting the price disparities, in restoring farm income, and in preventing the recurrence of unbalanced agricultural production, will help to restore the proper functioning of the whole economic mechanism. It is greatly to the public interest that this be done."

A balance, in short, had to be struck between the income due the farmer and the price paid by the consumer, so that the farmer could buy the products of industry.

The administrative mechanism invoked for the accomplishment of this purpose was the cooperative agreement, formalized through the local associations. Administrative officials, on the basis of nationwide and world-wide market and crop data, developed overall production requirement estimates, made allocations to the county associations, and finally, after allocations by these bodies, signed agreements with individual farmers. In compensation for limiting their production, farmers received cash compensatory grants. To finance this grant, taxes were levied on agricultural processors. While penalties were available for use against those who refused to cooperate, the practicability of the scheme rested upon securing virtually unanimous voluntary consent and participation. The administrators placed before the farmers a definite plan, and its provisions were thrown open to discussion. If a majority of the producers of the commodity affected were in

opposition, the plan was rejected. If the cleavage was so sharply divided that cooperative action along other lines or at a later date seemed in danger, the plan was shelved. Although the scope of modification was limited, because the program was one which involved the adjustment of equities on a State-wide and national basis, the specific commodity control programs were open covenants freely and openly arrived at. The utilization of the electoral process for the constitution of local commissions and of direct referenda on certain programs instituted under A.A.A. and continued under subsequent programs further emphasized the democratic aspects of the administrative operation.

Some months ago I had the opportunity to make a survey of five counties in various parts of the United States under the auspices of the Federal Council on Intergovernmental Relations. The most impressive single conclusion which emerged from this investigation was that in the field of agriculture the administrators had been able to devise consultative and advisory procedures, and even to devolve policy responsibility to such a high degree, that citizens were able to make their voices heard much more effectively in their Federal-States-local programs than in their exclusively local county, township or municipal governments. The pay-off on this development is clearly indicated in a comparison of the voting statistics of farmers eligible to participate in the agricultural programs in the agricultural referenda and in the local elections.

This is not to say that the universal and immutable principle for the attainment of economic democracy has been discovered, nor even that the pattern of organization for agricultural action programs developed during the past fifteen years represents a necessary or normal administrative mechanism during periods when the national economy is in a reasonably satisfactory state of balance - i.e., when the farmers are getting at least as big a slice of the national income as at present. It does prove, however, that in the face of grave emergency the most property-minded members of a very property-minded civilization can regulate and discipline themselves, under competent leadership, to protect their common interests and at the same time to safeguard the general welfare.

To get down to the Q.E.D. of all this, and to answer the questions I set for myself some paragraphs back, I suggest that in the reconsideration and reformulation of basic national agricultural policy, the agricultural administrator has a very much larger problem of analysis, of formulation of definite proposals, and of leadership in the engineering of understanding and consent than is likely to be encountered in the development of local operating programs proceeding along established and accepted lines. I think that this may be especially true in view of the integration of our politics, our economy, and our social organization into the world order, so that our domestic policies are now our foreign policies, and our foreign problems our domestic issues. The time will never come again when Piers Plowman need be unconcerned

about the wheat crop in the Ukraine, the Brazilian coffee production, or the Indian rice supply. While he must be taught, and constantly reminded, of the relation of world prosperity or depression to his own standard of living, it is not very likely that he will ever become so expert in international trade as to be able to formulate his own views or even analyze correctly his own best interest. Indeed, I'll be surprised if even the erudite gentlemen of the B.A.E. and F.A.O. come out with a completely convincing answer to that one. On the other hand, nothing could be more tragic, or lead more quickly to the destruction of the very tenuous and marginal prosperity of the farm population, than the surrender to lethargy and indifference to national and international economic and social policy which produced the boom and bust of the inter-war years.

We come now to the program responsibilities of the administrator to his more remote public - to groups and instrumentalities of social action which are not directly parties at interest in the extension program but whose general public interests from time to time intersect extension operations. In this group we may normally expect to find urban groups, such as labor unions, chambers of commerce, manufacturers associations, service clubs both urban and rural, professional associations, and the multitudinous other nuclei into which Americans habitually organize themselves. In a special category within this more generalized group we must include, of course, the press. I should like to emphasize that we are discussing here program responsibilities, not public relations generally. At a later session we will examine the ways and means by which the public is brought into a constructive relationship with operations. But at the present the problem is confined to the processes by which the secondary groups and instrumentalities are brought into contact with the programming process.

The basic fact with respect to consultative relationships in the programming process is that advice should not be requested about matters which are foreclosed. Unless the administrator is in a position to make practical use of at least some of the suggestions he may receive from groups consulted, he should not waste his and their time by going through the motions of consultation. This applies naturally to all groups, but since the channels of relationships and patterns of participation of agricultural interest groups tend to become fairly clear and recognizable early in the process, and indeed fairly well-worn by the cumulative effect of repetitive consultation, the main problems arise principally in connection with outer-circle cooperative relationships.

The extension administrator has not only the obligation to assure himself in his own mind that his program is actually in the public interest and promotes the general welfare, but that it will be so understood outside of the group directly affected by it, which is necessarily smaller than the whole community. His duty with respect to this larger aspect of the consultative process is therefore twofold: (1) he must verify his own convictions, and those of the groups

with which he works in close contact, that the program does in fact promote the general welfare; (2) he must make certain that his presentation of the program demonstrates clearly that it serves the public interest and is not the self-seeking effort of a group indifferent to the general welfare. In short, the program must not only be in fact a plan of operation designed to improve the condition of the entire State or community, but it must at every critical point clearly bear the evidence of its all-State or all-community objective.

In this process of consultation the administrator must not only preserve carefully the rights and interests of those groups and agencies which he has associated with himself in the process of basic programming, but must design the more generalized type of consultative cooperation so that it can serve effectively the necessarily limited objectives to which consultation in the final stages can contribute. Obviously, the administrator cannot reopen the program pattern in all its details - indeed, the technical aspects of many phases of the program would gain nothing and suffer much by wide-open amateur intervention at this or any other stage. Moreover, by the time the programming process reaches the stage where the general public must be brought into relationship with it, many questions of social and economic policy will already have become foreclosed in the mere working out of an integral and self-consistent plan. No good purpose is served by reopening these decisions unless the program so far misses the possibility of public acceptance that the social and economic policy decisions become invalid and inapplicable - unless, in short, the administrator decides that he must virtually scrap the program and start over.

The utility of this more generalized aspect of consultation in the programming process should not be deprecated because of the relative narrow limits within which it must be applied. Indeed, no operation could be of more ultimate importance to the success of the program itself than this review which catches the infelicitous phrase, which clarifies an obscurity that might readily lead to unreasoning opposition, or even which suggests some necessary changes in emphasis to bring the program into balance and harmony with that transient and constantly-changing phenomenon we call public opinion. The execution of the program will of itself, of course, alter opinions and change attitudes. The most the extension administrator can hope to accomplish through the consultative process is to secure a plan of operation and a program statement which is administratively and technically feasible, which is politically and socially acceptable and which is clearly understood and if possible strongly supported by the social instrumentalities which exercise a continuing function in the instruction and formation of public opinion.

II. B. THE PROGRAM RESPONSIBILITIES OF AN ADMINISTRATOR
TO HIS OWN ORGANIZATION

Some seventeen years ago when I was first appointed director of the Bureau of Public Administration at Charlottesville I had occasion to drop into the office of the then city manager in Norfolk, Mr. Thos. P. Thompson. I noticed as I entered the office a large placard hanging on the wall in the direct line of vision of anyone who sat facing the manager's desk. On this placard in huge letters that literally shouted across the room were three phrases:

"What t' hell?"

"How t' hell?"

"Where t' hell???"

After glancing at the placard a few times and cleaning my glasses once or twice, I asked the manager just what he had in mind with his big sign. "Well," he said, "whenever I can get my blank blank department heads, or the blank blank bellyaching taxpayers to answer me those three questions I've got all the dope I need to do something."

It is in this spirit that I organize my talk this morning around the three sacraments of the gospel according to St. Tommy.

The vital and indispensable step in getting any enterprise under way is finding the answer to Tommy Thompson's first question, "What are we trying to do?" Once that bridge is crossed the essential first step toward the development of a program has been taken, and the agency is on its way to operation. Once that bridge is crossed a great many subsidiary questions with respect to organization, procedure, staffing and, for that matter, a considerable number of fairly broad questions of policy, fall into line behind an original comprehensive and orderly conception of purpose.

Never underestimate the power of a clear purpose. Have you ever stopped to consider the legislation that has been enacted, the administrative machinery that has been created, the billions that have been expended, and the stupendous changes that have been made in the culture pattern of the American people as a result of the program statement contained in Franklin D. Roosevelt's "one-third of a Nation" speech? Have you ever given thought to the impossible and unbelievable things that were accomplished in the name of another program statement which posterity will remember as the "Four Freedoms?"

The position of the Extension Service with respect to definition of purposes and programming of activities is, as I emphasized at our meeting yesterday, unusual. On the whole, although one must

recognize the fact that a general framework of program is provided by the basic statutes of the Service, and some activities are prescribed in a fair amount of detail in appropriations, the Extension Service has a status with respect to the determination of its program much more nearly akin to that of the average State institution of higher learning than to a regular government department. This is as it was planned, and as it should be. But by the same token the quasi-independent status of the Extension Service's programming operations imposes an enormous burden of responsibility upon officials of the Service in the analysis and appraisal of needs and possibilities on the part of those whom the Extension officials serve.

The administrator of an educational organization such as a State Extension Service starts his programming, it seems to me, securely impaled on the horns of a dilemma. Not many of them ever get off. In the first place, the basic structure of the Extension Service predicates an organization blanketing the country in much the same manner that the Atlanta Constitution radio station boasts it covers Dixie. The mere scut-work involved in keeping the counties staffed and rolling has been a job of the first magnitude for the past eight or nine years, and from what I hear is not getting any easier. Second, the Extension Service is committed to the principle of doing things with people, instead of to them, and of maximizing local lay participation and leadership. This means that there are potentially at least as many projects to be considered in the establishment of an Extension program as there are persons locally active, which in 3,000-odd counties must add up to quite a few. The centripetal forces which are a consequence of the Extension Service's way of doing business are enormous, and make almost impossible the concentration of firepower necessary to accomplish a mission within the Service's available personnel and other resources.

Extension administrators cannot run the risk of relying altogether on short term programming. The promise of the Extension idea is not one that can be realized in four quarters of the moon. The objectives of any educational program, but especially one which reaches to the very bedrock of our social and economic organization, need to be projected on the long-view, and the distance from where we are to where we want to be then steadily contracted year by year, as the result of a multitude of specific short-term action programs successfully completed. There is, moreover, an important tactical advantage to long-term programming. Within the context of an annual work program it is necessary to select certain projects for immediate attention. This means automatically that other projects are excluded, with no special hope for revival. The struggle among those who favor one or another type of project then becomes a bitter-end fight, with no holds barred. The annual fracas leaves some scars that never heal. On the other hand, with a long-term approach it is possible with no more than a normal amount of the spirit of conciliation and sweet reasonableness to reach a common agreement so

that the partisans of most of the major types of projects can arrive at a program which will satisfy their several aspirations and which will enable most or all of the meritorious projects within the program to receive effective attention from the Service. The discussion can then center not on whether, which is always fighting talk, but on when, which is usually negotiable. Moreover, one can keep peace in the family by adding each year a year's worth of future projects on the far end of the program to take the place of the years worth of projects currently realized. This is what is known as a constructive conspiracy in behalf of the general welfare. My point is that an educational administrator who doesn't have at all times a fairly definite idea of where, God willing, he intends to be five or six years hence is in a poor way to control where he is going to be five or six months hence.

Programming in an educational organization such as the Extension Service is of course, itself a major educational technique. In this respect it differs radically from the usual conception of planning and programming in, for example, a highway department, where the programming process has no intrinsic value except in educating a few highway planning engineers but is merely subsidiary to the main objective, which is getting the road built. But a group of people which, with more or less expert guidance and direction, has addressed its attention to a common problem, has analyzed its interest in the matter, and has arrived at a notion of what should be done about it, has already gone a long distance not only toward getting the problem solved, but in establishing the technique for continuous solution of common problems. I do not for a moment infer that what is done in the Extension Service after programs are developed is unimportant, or that programming in and of itself is sufficient regardless of the follow-up, but I do want to make the very important distinction between programming in the Extension Service and in most other governmental agencies - in the Extension Service programming is both a staff operation in the sense that it is preparation for action, and it is a line operation, in the sense that its educational values are themselves of the highest order of importance and contribute directly to the ends which the Service was established to promote.

In these circumstances, I suggest that among the fundamental program responsibilities of an educational administrator to his own organization are: (1) the provision to the local Extension workers, who must bear the major responsibility for activating the programming process and eliciting leadership at the county level, of a clear statement of major problems as they appear from the overall vantage-point of the State office, and as they appear when tested against the background of national research and informational resources; (2) the delegation of sufficient authority and responsibility to enable the local Extension workers to proceed, without fear of embarrassment, in organizing and activating local consideration of these problems, and such others as may elicit genuine local interest, through the establishment of local program committees. At this stage,

without attempting to catalogue the principles of central-field relationships, I should like simply to point out that if the cooperative programming work of the local Extension workers is to be effective they must be accorded wide latitude in the guidance of the process at the local level. No matter how clear the understanding among the staff, both at headquarters and in the field, as to what the outstanding problems are and what the major program projects ought therefore to be, the local staff must never be placed in the position of having to secure a rubber-stamp approval by their local committees of decisions taken higher up. I should like also to point out that the local staff, working in constant and intimate contact with local leaders, is in a relatively weaker position to keep the programming objectives sharpened and well-defined and State-wide in viewpoint than are the programming groups in the upper echelons. The local staff need and deserve the backstopping of top management at this stage of the process, and should not be criticized if a considerable amount of rubbish gets temporarily into the local program proposals along with the essential projects.

Final responsibility for the definitive formulation of the program rests, of course, upon the State program committee and to a very large degree upon the director personally. The task of formulating and reformulation of the long-range objectives of the Service at the State level, of relating projects to the long range objectives, of allocating priorities among projects approved, and of reworking current work-programs to meet emergency conditions, all the while maintaining the consent and approval of agricultural leaders and at least the acquiescence of State and Federal officials involved in his operations, is of the essence of the administrative function, and need not be elaborated upon here. One point which I regard as of great importance, and which is not too generally observed, is that the program statement should provide a rallying-cry for the entire agricultural community. During the last war, when the program was more production and conservation at all costs somebody produced a very terse program summary, "Food will Win the War and Write the Peace!" I am not unmindful of the fact that too many slogans defeat their own purposes, and that farmers, like anyone else, develop a tolerance to the catch-phrases that are thrown at them. The important thing, in any case, is not the slogan, but the existence of a simple and easily understood central idea which will command the attention and capture the imagination of those whose cooperation is needed in the execution of the program. I commend especially to your attention an address by Mr. H. E. Babcock at the 1946 Administrative Workshop on this general subject.

Once the Extension administrator has in hand a reasonably viable statement of what he intends to do, he is in a position to go on to the problem of how he ought to set about it. I suggest that contrary to both the Christian precept of self-immolation and the Emily Post adjuration of modesty, the best place for an educational administrator to start worrying is about himself. His responsibilities, in the aggregate, are so large that unless he gets himself effectively

organized at the very outset he will never get in a position to function effectively as the head of the organization. This problem of getting himself in shape to operate as the Head of the Service is in some ways extremely simple and in others infinitely complex. The basic factor in the situation seems, in my amateur observation, to reside in the Gingham Dog and Calico Cat relationship existing between the Association of Land Grant Colleges on the one hand and the Extension Service on the other. I know of no more interesting example of complete metamorphosis in the annals of American public administration than that by which the land grant college presidents have become one of the major influences in overall Extension Service policy. This, although it looks like hell on an organization chart, is actually a great source of strength to an educational undertaking, and on the whole the occasional administrative anomalies it produces do not seem to be too serious. But the relationship which Bagehot calls "intimate detachment" between the administrator of the State Extension Service and the board and president of the land grant college implicit in the merging of policy and administrative responsibilities at this echelon does need a considerable amount of managing and fast footwork. I am no expert on the taming, care or feeding of land grant college presidents; in fact, I have never dealt with one except from behind the barricades of an embattled budget office, and then only after I was certain that my supply of ammunition was limitless and my artillery, tank and air support invincible. Accordingly, I shall not attempt to advise the Workshop on this topic.

At a later place in our proceedings I shall discuss the staff arms of the director, and how he can find more time for loafing and getting acquainted with his organization through the proper employment of general staff assistance. The point I wish to make at this time is that unless the administrator is able occasionally to make his employees work for him, instead of himself always working for his employees, he will never find time to do the non-delegable part of his job - the handling of topside policy, management and public relations problems with his president and board, with the Department, with State officials and with agricultural leaders. The finest chief clerk in the world can still be a horrible flop as an Extension director.

The next important factor in the "how" of program operation is organization. There was a time, of course, when a farmer was a farmer and an Extension agent was an Extension agent. The farmer, although he frequently doesn't realize it, has long since ceased to be a farmer and has become a multipartite agrico-industrialist and a grease-monkey attached to a prodigious amount of mechanical equipment, while the Extension operation has blossomed into the proverbial fifty-seven varieties of specialization. This is, of course, all to the good and is largely responsible for the world pre-eminence of American agriculture. But it involves a good deal of organizing.

Organization has one purpose and only one purpose. It is to liberate constructively human energy. The Extension administrator can check back to this fundamental purpose every time he reviews his

organization structure against his work program, and should check back every time his bright young general staff people come in with one more proposal for a field report form to be executed or another layer of supervision to be established. Furthermore, organization has no meaning except in terms of the job to be done, and then only when the efforts of a number of individuals must be applied in an orderly and sequential way to the solution of a particular problem. The best organization is informal; from the standpoint of efficiency in the larger sense, no organization has yet been devised that can touch a well-adjusted family. I emphasize this point because a great many people who fall victim to that most vicious form of administrative doodling known as drawing organization charts seem completely to lose their sense of proportion and of relationship between ends and means, and eventually succumb to a schizophrenic condition in which they think that human relationships can actually be channeled through a lot of blocks and vertical and horizontal lines. I suggest in the strongest possible terms that an educational administrator, who is in the specially advantageous position of having people of better than ordinary intelligence and education with whom to work, keep his formal organizational arrangements to a minimum, and make absolutely certain that that minimum serves effectively to free those who try to work within its structure in getting on with their appointed tasks.

Those who like to discourse learnedly about organization point out that it has grown in importance with the great increase in the specialization of individuals. Productive output in industry, in agriculture, in education, and in college football has multiplied with the constantly greater and greater division of labor. But since the efforts of all of these highly specialized individuals must add up to something useful organization is required. A football coach with forty-four red-hot placement kickers and nothing else would still never get to the Rose Bowl. Some must pass, some must block, some must run with the ball, some must tackle. The work of each must be related systematically to the other and all focussed upon a common objective before the desired product is obtained.

Like other conspirators, the public administration people have developed several ideas and more than a little gobbledygook about the ways in which work can and should be organized. Agreement is fairly general that organizations fall into four major categories with respect to their structural bases. First, there is the agency set up by function or purpose. The Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture is, vis-a-vis the other branches and divisions of the Department, a functionally organized agency. In fact, one of the clearest functional mandates which I know anything about is contained in the memorandum addressed to the Federal Director of Extension Work by the Secretary of Agriculture on February 11, 1942. Although pointed specifically to Extension work in wartime its terms are, it seems to me, of generic and permanent application:

"The Extension Service is recognized as the responsible subject-matter agency that taps the scientific and economic information of this Department and the State Experiment Stations and uses this information in a practical way in guiding farm people on all phases of farming and homemaking in the most comprehensive sense.

"The Extension Service is responsible for all group or general educational work essential to a fundamental understanding of all action programs. Extension should sponsor all officially called farm meetings for this purpose; it should otherwise see to it that no farmer or farm woman in America is left in the dark as to the why and the how of all public effort affecting rural welfare."

Functional organization is the predominant basis of administrative structure in line agencies throughout national, State and local government in the United States. There are many who insist that it is the only truly efficient basis of organization since in its complete theoretical application it eliminates the possibility of duplication of work and conflict of efforts among the activities of individual employees. Although human nature frequently overcomes organizational theory, the functional approach is quite generally utilized in large undertakings.

It is more difficult to define process as a basis of organization, and sometimes function and process seem to coincide very closely. As a rule general staff organization - accounting and fiscal control, programming (insofar as performed by special general staff employees), personnel management, and legal services - tend to be established as process units. Many of the specialist staff groups - engineering, statistical, etc. - likewise operate most effectively as process organizations.

Clientele or commodity organization is much more readily identifiable. In our discussion yesterday we looked at the problem of clientele organization as a factor in the performance of the program responsibilities of an educational administrator to the public. While the Department of Agriculture has administered a number of programs which were in fact aimed at particular segments of the rural population, and while a great many of the action programs in which the Extension Service participated were commodity programs, I believe I am correct in saying that neither clientele nor commodity has ever been used as a basis for organization at the bureau level. Of course, the Bureau of Plant Industry has long been organized internally on the basis of commodity research divisions, such as Cereal Crops and Diseases, Cotton and other Fiber Crops and Diseases, Drug and Related Plants, etc., etc. I suppose one might say that the Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine is organized on a commodity-clientele basis, since its major divisions are concerned with cotton insects, fruitflies, gypsy and brown-tail moths, Japanese beetles, pink boll

worms, screw worms, etc. However, I have never heard of the Japanese beetles trying to take a hand in naming the Undersecretary or the Director of Extension Work, so, on the basis of our experience with clientele organization elsewhere in the government, this must be a faulty classification.

Fourthly, the place where a job is done - the area - is an important basis for the organization of many activities. In the case of the Extension Service it is the basis upon which, according to Mr. W. H. Conway's tabulations in the proceedings of the 1946 Workshop, about 70 per cent of Extension funds are expended. It is probably a safe deduction that at least 70 per cent of the Extension Service manpower functions regularly and on permanent local geographical assignment in the counties, while another 16 or 18 per cent representing the subject-matter specialist group, functions in the counties on special assignment a very considerable part of the time. This inevitable geographical basis of Extension Service organization carries with it a great many other administrative problems, such as central-field relationships, communications, and a great many problems in the general field of decentralization.

Let us have a closer look at the geographical basis of organization to which, it seems, the Extension Service is by the nature of its objectives and program committed. We may note, first, that a geographical basis of organization is dictated by the fact that the people in whom the Extension Service is primarily interested live in relatively thinly populated agricultural communities. Second, the educational program which is the reason for the Extension Service's existence, demands that Extension Service personnel see regularly and cooperate continuously with a very large number of farm people. Third, since it is the Cooperative Extension Service program we are talking about, an essential element of which is active participation, both financial and operational, by the grass roots units of government, organization by place means almost universally organization by counties. I am fully aware of the interest of the Cooperative Extension Service in county-consolidation and the rationalization of rural administrative areas, as well as the adjustments which have frequently been made by the Service in securing economical areas of local operation. In the main, however, the Extension Service has wisely chosen to keep as close as possible to the existing grass root units, since even the least populous county usually provides a very full work load for at least one county agent.

However compelling the arguments in favor of this form of organization, it is still necessary to point out that it is not the only way. In many States where local rural health administration is jointly supported by Federal, State and local funds, the States exercise virtually complete administrative control, combine several counties for administrative services, and compel the payment of county contributions into the State treasury for disbursement by State health officials. Of course, health administration is still conceived of as

being predominantly a regulatory activity with certain educational overtones, which differentiates it radically from the program of the Extension Service. Nevertheless, the Extension administrator should not slip into the state of mind which assumes that the present basis of Extension field work organization is the only possible basis.

The practical advantages of geographical organization are fairly obvious. In the first place it greatly simplifies the coordination of services rendered within the local area. Secondly, it contributes significantly to the adaptation of the program to the needs of the areas served, both as a result of the adaptative discretion delegated to the local county agents, and because the needs of the local areas are more effectively represented at the State level by agents conscious of local affiliations and ties. Thirdly, it facilitates cooperation with the local governments which are, by definition, an integral part of the program; this is especially true if local boundaries of county government and Extension administration are coterminous. Geographical organization also serves to reduce travel costs, to short-circuit problems of program and operations adjustment, to eliminate a large amount of red tape, to speed up cooperative activities and administrative decisions. It makes the local Extension agents aware of local needs and of the interrelation of program and operation problems, and increases the sensitivity of Extension officials to the processes of democratic control by virtue of their close association with the officials and leaders of the people served as well as the people themselves. However, to assure the realization of the potentials of geographic organization, very large discretion must be delegated to the local county agents. It should be recognized that local agents must be generalists of equal, if not superior, ability to the specialists heading functional or technical offices on the campus.

On the other hand, it should be clearly recognized that geographical organization greatly increases the difficulty of maintaining a uniform State-wide policy. It creates a certain tendency toward narrow and short-term thinking and acting. It increases the difficulty of making full and effective use of technical services and of achieving the economics of specialization. It produces higher costs in terms of supervisory personnel.

There is a reluctance on the part of State directors to delegate the power and authority essential to effective functioning in the field. In some quarters at least the local posts seem to command much lower salaries and much less prestige than corresponding positions at the center of the organization, which makes for adverse selection in staffing the field positions. Because American politics are generally organized around the court-house ring, county organization of Extension operations renders the Service somewhat more vulnerable to local logrolling and pressure politics, and to subversion by spoils-minded politicians. Finally, there is the enormous quantitative and qualitative diversification in the agricultural education problem among counties of varying areas and populations, and with widely

divergent agricultural economies, which means that the county is rarely the ideal jurisdiction if viewed solely from the standpoint of administrative considerations.

Finally, on the point of geographical organization, in view of the large number of counties in the average State, of the broadening of the scope of Extension work and the corresponding increase in the number of field employees as well as the multiplication of the subject-matter specialists in the State Extension Service, the director is increasingly confronted with the more effective disposition of his facilities for local operations. How can he use supervisors and make them effective, while at the same time keeping them in their place? Since this problem has distinct organizational aspects, over and above the general problem of center-field relationships, which will be discussed in another lecture, it is worth a few minutes of our attention at this point.

First, is the supervisory job to be organized at headquarters or are regional offices to be established, with the supervisory function becoming an essential part of the field operation? There is an enormous amount of difference between a supervisor who stays at headquarters and processes the flow of documentation between the field and the central office for some twenty or twenty-five counties, and a supervisor who operates from a regional office and maintains fairly constant personal contact with the county Extension people within his region. In the first case the delegation of authority to the supervisor is relatively inconsequential; in the latter case it is all important. Further, are the subject-matter specialists then to continue to be attached directly to the central office and to be assigned in its discretion, or can they be attached to the regional offices and incorporated more intimately into the field operation? In this latter case, how can the liaison of Extension subject-matter specialists with research people in the Experiment Station be maintained, and what are the lines of communication with the various specialist bureaus and divisions in the Department in Washington?

These are just a few of the more elementary problems confronting the Extension Service director in working out his pattern of field organization and relationships. It is easy to say that the director should establish an organization in which power will be delegated in clear and unequivocal terms, in which authority will always correspond with responsibility, in which there will be no conflicting or overlapping jurisdiction, etc., etc. But saying it and doing it are two different things, no matter how sincere the desire of the administrator or how cooperative and understanding his staff.

Even after the problem of field organization is worked out, the administrator has some remaining segments of his personnel, small in number but large in potential, to work into the administrative structure. As has been pointed out, the general staff activities will tend to fall rather naturally into process groupings, while the subject-matter specialists may be best handled in functional, process, or even commodity departments.

Organization by major process in some circumstances has very definite advantages. It brings together in a single office a large amount of the same kind of work, and by making possible a high degree of specialization contributes to the development of expertise and the maximum utilization of up-to-the-minute technical skill. Frequently it makes possible the economic utilization of labor saving machinery - for example, a unified statistical office might well afford mechanical tabulating equipment, while if the function were distributed among all the divisions of the Service using statistics none would have a work load which would justify the equipment rental. Low unit costs always rest on the process. Organization by process, moreover, encourages coordination in all the technical and highly skilled work in the Service, because all those engaged in a given field are brought together under unified supervision rather than being scattered all over the organization. As applied to the general staff services - programming, budgeting, personnel management, etc. - as well as to the auxiliary services - accounting, purchasing, etc. - process organization furnishes an excellent approach to the development of effective general management and control. Finally, process organization emphasizes the career aspect of Extension Service work, and leads to the stimulation of professional standards and pride in the professional aspects of the Service. If the division is composed primarily of soil chemists, or agricultural economists, or plant pathologists from top to bottom the career ladder is much sturdier than the flying trapeze which, as Luther Gulick phrases it, a man must perform upon in getting to the top of a functionally organized agency.

On the other hand, it is impossible to aggregate all the work of the Extension Service, or even all the work of the campus part of the Service, on the process basis alone. There can, furthermore, never be a "departmental product" in a process organized department, except perhaps in a general staff agency. There is also, it may be noted, the very real danger that process organization may militate against the accomplishment of the basic purposes of the organization, because the process departments are frequently more interested in how things are done than in what is accomplished. We have all come across accountants in our day who actually believe that the government was organized solely to provide an excuse for recondite and complicated bookkeeping, as well as scientists who are totally devoid of any time sense, and agricultural engineers with no conception of the economic limitations upon engineering improvements. On the whole, it seems also true that departments built around established professions or skills soon develop a profound arrogance and lack of amenability to democratic control. The insolence of professionalism is no mere figure of speech. Another important consideration is that organization based on process is definitely less favorable to the building of a separate administrative service, since it brings relatively narrow specialists to the top in each process department who are incompetent to handle administrative work in other fields and are probably not very hot at the administrative side of the job in their own bailiwicks. From the administrator's standpoint, perhaps the most important drawback of process based organization is that the job of coordination increases

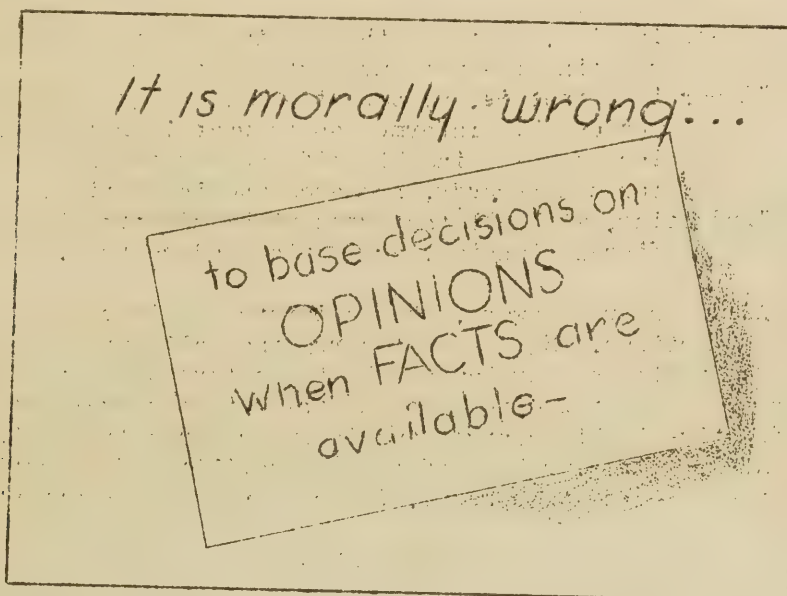
geometrically with each process unit added. The task of coordinating functional departments is difficult enough, but if coordination falls down among functionally organized agencies the failure is limited in its effects. Process departments must be coordinated not only to avoid conflict but to produce any positive result. All must function at a relatively uniform standard of efficiency and their timing must be practically perfect. A failure in one process throws the entire organization out of gear. An administrator who relies extensively on process based organization will need the absolute power of an oriental despot and the soul of a Prussian drillmaster.

Mention has earlier been made of organization on the basis of clientele or commodity. It might be pointed out that within the counties there is a strong element of clientele organization in the Extension Service as among farmers, farm women and farm youth, and in my talk yesterday I suggested that from one point of view the entire Department of Agriculture might be viewed as a clientele organization. However, the catholicity of interest among the clientele, both nationally and locally, produces a condition in which the notion of clientele becomes practically the same as the notion of population. Indeed, the whole idea of a clientele organization in the sense in which this is customarily understood - an agency set up for protecting the interests of an impotent or underprivileged minority - is reduced to an absurdity when the clientele of an agency comes to be sixty or seventy or eighty per cent of the population of an area.

There are certain advantages of clientele or commodity organization. It greatly simplifies the coordination of contacts between the Extension Service and the people with whom it maintains direct relations. It must be a great comfort to the farmer to be able, in the main, to deal with Joe Doaks every time he has a problem with the Service instead of a different man for each different kind of problem, none of whom have ever read the minutes of the last meeting, and all of whom give him different and even contradictory advice. In the same way, if the commodity basis of organization is used (as for example in the inspection and grading work) a great deal of expertise is developed by the handling over and over again of the same commodity. An especially important factor in clientele organization for the Extension Service is its economy with respect to travel costs in serving a widely distributed group of customers. On the debit side, it sacrifices the advantages of specialization and forces the local Extension people to be jacks-of-all-trades. It is also artificial, in the sense that the population cannot be completely organized on a clientele basis, and a man's interests are only partially encompassed by his client status in relation to this or that agency. Extensively applied, clientele organization would inevitably lead to terrific duplication and conflict and utter confusion. Finally, I should like to reiterate the gravity of the political danger inherent in clientele organization - the difficulty of controlling and restricting the activities of favor-seeking pressure groups.

There is no philosophers' stone which the administrator may rub, and no book to which he may go, to find out what bases and principles of organization to embrace in a particular situation. He will have to make his own appraisal of the job to be done, the political and social situation, the human material he is working with, and perhaps the most important constant of all, the cumulation of judgments, decisions, and actions, sound and foolish, which he and his predecessors and subordinates have taken over the years. The Extension Service, like all agencies of social purpose, is a living thing. It is a product, nationally, in the States, and in the counties, of the sum total of the jobs it has tried to do and of the people who have operated within its programs. Each of its activities has been initiated, has had a developmental period, has reached a zenity, has stabilized at a certain level, and has in some cases declined and perhaps disappeared altogether. The principles of organization valid in the early thirties were completely eclipsed in the latter part of that decade and during the war years. I suspect that even today a good part of our administrative machinery is admirably adapted for the performance of yesterday's program. Time is an essential element in the practicability of any theory of organization.

Technological development makes monkeys of us all. The Extension Service field work organization, one of whose parents was certainly the Model T Ford, and which rode to glory on the Model A, may be rendered technologically obsolete by the development of cheap two-way television. While I doubt if any of us should try to hold his breath until this comes about, or consider any substantial budgetary economics during the 1948-49 fiscal year on the basis of the probability, it is still true that once technological facilities are available, the agency which fails to recognize their existence in its scheme of organization and operation may greatly lessen the application of improved technological devices and by the same token penalize its own effectiveness. In a competitive world this can be fatal.



III A. THE STAFF, THE SERVANT OF THE LINE -
THE GENERAL STAFF

Someone has observed, with a considerable amount of truth, that the great unsolved problem of modern government is how to make the general staff effective and still keep it in its place. Because it is so easy - indeed it is oftentimes so perfectly natural - for general staff services to take a slightly wrong turning and end up exercising control over operations not only independent of but sometimes in opposition to the operating officers, I suggest that this topic is worthy of a very thorough going-over by a group of State Extension administrators.

In defining our problem we will probably receive some assistance by recurring to the proverbial horse's mouth, in this case either M. Henri Fayol, if we take our administrative theory with a Gallic sauce, or Dr. Luther Gulick, if we prefer the home grown product. Gulick defines the work of the chief administrator, which the general staff assists him in carrying out, as POSDCORB. He defines POSDCORB as follows:

- "Planning, that is, working out in broad outline the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them to accomplish the purpose set for the organization.
- "Organizing, that is, the establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined and coordinated for the defined objective.
- "Staffing, that is, the whole personnel function of bringing in and training the staff and maintaining favorable conditions of work.
- "Directing, that is, the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the leader of the enterprise.
- "Co-ordinating, that is, the all important duty of inter-relating the various parts of the work.
- "Reporting, that is, keeping those to whom the executive is responsible informed as to what is going on, which thus includes keeping himself and his subordinates informed through records, research and inspection.
- "Budgeting, with all that goes with budgeting in the form of fiscal planning, accounting and control."

As we are well aware, the administrator is responsible for all of these functions. He does not carry them all out himself. Indeed, within limits imposed by law and by the nature of certain operations, the more he delegates - the less he tries to take care of himself - the more effective is his control and influence over the entire organization. Although the problem of the delegability of executive functions is not the topic of this essay, I recommend to your attention the very

thoughtful and well-considered section on the "Duties of the State Extension Directors," and especially the chart of delegable, partially delegable, and non-delegable functions, which you will find on pages 103 to 108 of the Report of the 1946 Workshop.

What we are rather concerned about at this time is how the thing operates once the director has delegated, and has created institutional arrangements for the performance of, certain aspects of the executive function, and how he operates in relation to those institutional arrangements so that they actually contribute to his own effectiveness in the overall management of the undertaking. In our thinking about the general staff, we should remember that in no circumstances does the establishment of institutional general staff facilities - budget offices, personnel agencies, planning and programming boards, offices of legal counsel, etc. - constitute or imply any transfer of responsibility or authority from the chief administrator. The general staff units are not under the administrator, they are of the administrator. They act in his name, and on his responsibility and authority. They exist only because modern government is so large and so complex that all of the work involved in managing an organization cannot be performed by one man, and since unity of command is an administrative value of great worth the chief administrator must employ men to do the considerable part of the work of the administrator which can be reduced to relative routine and operated within fairly definite directives, or which involves the preparation of administrative matters for the judgment and decision of the chief administrator. For example, the Extension director, after he gets his accounting system established, the definitions and classifications of accounts worked out, the recording and checking procedures in good working order, and the whole thing in the hands of a man whose integrity and loyalty he trusts, and who is in any case bonded for \$50,000, can fairly well forget about the accounting system as such, and worry himself only with the reports which it produces for his edification and enlightenment. But if he gets a strong-minded person with ideas about what the Extension program ought to be in the job as comptroller or chief accountant, and if this person uses his power with respect to account settlements to influence or direct Extension activities - as the Comptroller General of the United States has not hesitated occasionally to do with respect to certain Federal programs - then the accounting department is not functioning as a general staff agency. Such an official should, of course, be fired with great dispatch. The President, unfortunately, cannot fire the Comptroller General. On the other hand, the Extension director's responsibilities for actual decisions with respect to overall planning and directing can be delegated to only a very limited degree, as can his reporting duties. Assistants can be helpful in providing information on major planning issues, but that is about all. Although general staff assistance is useful in directing - in preparing orders and instructions in preliminary form - the maximum delegation in this function is of a fairly high-order of secretarial responsibility. The director personally must make the decision and issue or not issue the order. The director usually has himself to handle the president of the college.

The internal balance of general staff work in any agency is a function of program content and organization structure. My impression is that budgeting and personnel management comprise at least seventy-five percent of the general staff work in the average State Extension director's shop, with programming and reporting accounting for practically all the rest. A State highway department would present a completely different picture, with planning and programming in the top spot and, if the program is largely carried out by force account, with purchasing, a general staff function only by courtesy and usually pushed out of sight in one corner of the finance division, coming from behind to take its place alongside budgeting and personnel management as major general staff duties.

I don't know just what is behind the order in which Dr. Gulick lists his executive functions, and which determines the singularly ugly work POSDCORB which we synthesize out of the first letters. In any case, I am not very good at anagrams, and since we are talking about general staff functions in terms of the general staff of the State Extension director, I propose in this talk to concentrate attention on budgeting and personnel management as general staff services, and how to make them serve the director and the line operators - the poor devils out in the counties, by the sweat of whose brows you all live and move and have your being. If we have time we will cast a kingly glance in the direction of planning and programming, which I have already pointed out is in the Extension Service a mixed general staff and operating function.

In opening our consideration of the budgetary process as a general staff function, the be-all and end-all of which is the service of the line agencies, I should like to reiterate a point which I have made on a good many occasions - the budget is not primarily a fiscal document. It is a program of operations, in which manpower, materials and supplies, telephone and telegraph service, electric lights, technical and scientific equipment, travel, and hundreds of other services and commodities required to carry out the program are reduced to a common denominator as the basis for an agreement with the body which controls the public purse - in a democratic society; the Congress, the State legislatures, and the county boards of supervisors or commissioners. This agreement, consummated in an appropriation, liberates the administrator to proceed with the agreed program, and is the price which the legislative body exacts for this grant of authority. The program is what the legislative body, in behalf of the shareholders in our commonwealth, is buying.

The classic statement on the budgetary function is contained in the Report of the President's Committee on Administrative Management, which reads as follows:

"It is the purpose of the budget system to provide in financial terms for planning, information and control. Through the budget the spending agencies are required to translate their

work programs in advance into fiscal terms, so that each activity may be brought into balance and proportion with all other activities, and with the revenue and resources of the Government, and in harmony with general and long-range economic policies. The budget not only serves as the basis of information for the Congress and the public with regard to the past work and future plans of the Administration, but also as the means of control of the general policy of the Government by the Legislative Branch and of the details of administration by the Executive."

The State Extension director is usually concerned with three budget-making officers or agencies - the Department of Agriculture Office of Budget and Finance, so ably represented here and in other even more exalted places, by our friend Bill Jump, the State budget office, in the event the land-grant college is substantially subject to departmental budgetary procedures at the State level, and the local county boards of supervisors or commissioners. While the external aspects of budgetary operations are of importance to this discussion only insofar as they condition and determine general staff relationships within the organization, I think it is worthwhile to tie down the responsibilities of the departmental executive and his budget staff vis-a-vis the general budget agency and the appropriating bodies. In this respect I should like to cite with complete approval, although my experience has mainly been on the snarled-against end, the notable address of Mr. Jump made at a very notable meeting of the Governmental Research Association at Princeton in 1939:

"... in the budget process, as the wheels turn from day to day there inevitably are severe differences of judgment as to whether funds should be provided for a given purpose and, if so, in what amount, whether one course of action or another is to be followed, and so on. These differences are numerous and far reaching in effect. They may relate to a specific item or they may involve a general policy. This simply means that two sets of individuals, starting from opposite angles, even though their final objectives may be the same, will find themselves miles - or I should say "millions" - apart.

"It is at this stage that the departmental budget officer becomes an advocate or special pleader of the cause he represents. His position in representing the department then is analogous to that of an attorney for his client. In such circumstances, departmental budget officers put up the strongest and most effective fight of which they are capable, to obtain the funds or other action which their departmental interest require. Their departmental interests, bear in mind, have been determined by the same budgetary ethics that have been discussed in the preceding paragraphs. On these occasions no apologies are offered for a vigorous position, or even an occasional showing of teeth, if circumstances seem to require it. The system is one of checks and balances, and the Federal

machinery for combatting and deflating departmental concepts of what is necessary is so extensive and at times so difficult of persuasion that unless departmental representatives proceed to present their viewpoint in a vigorous and tenacious manner, objectives which are essential or what are very necessary to the public welfare might, for the time being at least, be submerged by some purely budgetary objective, or by the budgetary power, rather than served thereby. At this point the departmental budget officer proceeds on the principle that the government exist to serve the needs of a great people and not primarily for the purpose of creating a model budget system, as desirable as the latter objective undoubtedly is."

I suggest, therefore, that one of the fundamental obligations of the Extension administrator and his budget staff in serving the line is that of preparing a carefully documented and thoroughly justifiable budget plan, and then fighting like hell for it to the next to the last ditch. On the other hand, the budget staff must realize that the preparation and defense of the budgetary proposals of the organization do not confer any property rights. It is precisely at this point, and because of this fact, that budget officers lose their general staff point of view and conceive of themselves as operating officials with responsibility for supervising and controlling the line officials in carrying out the policies and programs authorized in the budgets for which they have fought, bled and sometimes well-nigh died.

Harold Smith once wrote that there ought never to be any disagreement about the cost of doing a given piece of work, but that there was plenty of room for discussion and disagreement about how many pieces of a given type of work the government ought to buy, or whether it ought to buy any at all. The budget officer performs his first important task as a servant of the line when he gets down, on the basis of incontrovertible data, to the job of working out with the line official a reasonable and agreed statement of the cost of performing a stated piece of work. The call for estimates for the 1948 Federal budget, for example, contains the following passage:

"Operating standards are essential for the translation of workloads into costs. In numerous units....such standards and ratios have been developed and applied as effective tools of management and as bases for estimates of needed funds, personnel and facilities; e.g., vouchers audited per examiner; claims adjudicated per examiner; cards tabulated per hour of machine rental; cards punched or coded or sorted per operator; documents searched or filed per file clerk; sheets mimeographed per machine, per operator; lines typed per operator; man-days or crew-days per acre or per parcel of land surveyed; cost per mile and per hour of vehicle operation; ratio of employment office personnel to total employment; cubic-foot costs of new construction by types; ratio of annual repair costs to total investment; and for institutional activities - cost per bed,

cost per patient day, personnel-to-patient ratios, and utilization rates. As a contributory step in assembling and making more widely available operating standards now in use, and in furthering their development and application, it is desired that to whatever extent such standards have been developed each justification text—present them in concise written or tabular form following, or as a part of, the presentation of the workload."

Despite the fact that a great deal of nonsense has been written, and more than a few horrible administrative crimes have been committed, in the name of operating standards, the development of agreement between line and budget officials with respect to such standard is an absolute prerequisite to the effective management of the budget process. Unless estimates can be based upon agreed standards and agreed costs, the discretionary authority thrown upon the budget officials is so great that arbitrariness is unavoidable and arbitrariness is the one thing that is fatal to effective line-staff cooperation.

Line officials have a hard time thinking in terms of the total organizational program, even when they are located at headquarters and maintain close contact with overall program planning. Geographical isolation and functional specialization tend to encourage capsular thinking, and make the attainment of a generalized view of agency activities almost impossible. Moreover, it is important to remember that the tone and spirit of an administrative organization are only partially a product of the conceptions of management that radiate from the top echelons - in perhaps an even greater degree they reflect the points of view that prevail in the operating divisions. The State director of extension may discourse eloquently about the dynamics of the overall program, and budget officers may labor the comprehensive view on all occasions, but the line official wants only two answers: What does it give me? What does it take away from me? If he does not participate in the department or agency-wide perspective, if he does not transliterate agency objectives into vital project operations within his own bailiwick, the overall program never has a chance to become a living reality. Don Stone has phrased this particular point in the following words:

"Failure on the part of the executive to seek aggressively his organization's support may leave him in a precarious position. The forces militating against an effective working together toward a common goal are many and powerful in any large organization; unreconciled points of view, tradition and routine, inertia, the distortions that grow out of specialist interests, personal ambitions. These internal resistances, singly or in combination, can cancel out the executive's efforts. To be sure, some of the drives in any established organization represent forces of stability that will keep the organization running when there is no leadership and will save the new executive from many mistakes. Furthermore, the necessary adjustment of the executive to the facts of his environment can

contribute to his development by increasing his understanding of how he can function in relation to what goes on around him. On the other hand, if the executive is entirely unsophisticated in the ways of institutional behavior and does not consciously take steps to offset the divisive elements in his environment, he will find himself dominated by rather than dominating his organization."

The budgetary process offers one of the opportunities par excellence to set in motion forces of integration and agency unification, or on the other hand to strengthen and emphasize divisive and disruptive tendencies. Its effect is never neutral. The proper working of the budgetary general staff function is therefore a matter of transcendental importance to the Extension administrator.

The elements of topside budgetary policy derive only incidentally from dominantly fiscal considerations. In large part they turn upon developments in the programming operations of the Extension Service. Their resolution involves the weighing of many possible lines of development against the concrete data thrown up in the programming operation and elsewhere. Conferences among general staff and leading operating officials are frequently necessary. Many times the director will find it essential to find out how the political winds are blowing, since despite his close association with the land grant college his clientele is a special clientele, and the political forces back of his program are by no means identical with those of the academic college. But from whatever sources derived, the director must, if his budgetary general staff is to function as an Extension of his own policies and objectives, give it a clear indication of his major budget program emphases on the basis of which to formulate collaboratively with the operating officials proposals which implement the director's purposes.

The consultative procedures which are invoked in the working out of budgetary programs with line officials are of the very essence of administrative management. If they are skillfully handled, the bases of organizational unity and power are reaffirmed and strengthened. If they are arbitrarily and unsympathetically pursued, the position of the administrator is profoundly deteriorated. Of course, the flow of initiative in this respect is by no means in only one direction. Actually, the conferences and consultations between the budget general staff and the line officials are to some degree a culmination, for the line official, of the intra-divisional adjustments which have been in process for some time before the process reaches the conference stage. He, too, has been establishing a few priorities and ironing out jurisdictional conflicts and activity maladjustments among his section chiefs and local subordinates, and the job of the general staff budget officer is considerably affected by the quality of the staff work performed by the line official prior to the consultative period. From the very moment that the Agricultural Specialist Leader and his staff or the senior county agent in County X begin to speculate about the fiscal possibilities of the coming year or the coming biennium, practically every other operating official in the organization begins also to

think about what he might be able to sell the top management. In the process he manages also to poke his nose into what practically everyone else in the Extension Service is doing or has in mind, so that he will in any case be able to keep up with the Joneses in his asking.

Of course, mere campus gossip, in which fiscal matters run a very close second to and at times pull ahead of the latest unlicensed pregnancy around the academic halls, generates a considerable amount of informal consultative coordination, and I understand that the situation is not very different in the field. Line officials are quick to modify their outlook when they discover themselves speeding toward a head-on collision with other interests, especially if the latter are potentially more powerful. There is a large amount of wholly informal give and take in the preliminary processes, and a certain volume of integration and shortening of lines of communication at the very outset. The budgetary procedures afford a continuing stimulus for officials in all parts of the organization to abandon their microcosmic thinking and take a unified view of the entire service.

In all this process, the administrator cannot permit his budgetary general staff to get between him and his operating officials. They can investigate and cumulate data, they can even work out proposed solutions, and formulate directives for his signature, but a wise executive will insist upon a record of what happened at the clearance of the proposed directive with the operating official. He will want to know whether the operating official agrees or not, and if not why not. He will insist upon objective functioning and objective reporting, and he will never permit a staff officer to substitute his will for the unknown will of the absent operating official. If the organization is sufficiently large to justify the maintenance of an organization and methods unit to study constantly problems of structure and procedures, he will keep the unit in a strictly advisory role to the operating officials and to himself, and will never permit it to become involved in the preparation or review of estimates or in any type of control operation which might lend the color of anything more than scientifically objective intellectual authority to its recommendations. If the operating officials wish to follow the recommendations of an organization and methods unit, well and good, but only the administrator himself should ever move in the direction of coercing compliance.

The effective functioning of a personnel office as a general staff agency is if anything more complicated and difficult than that of a budget office. In the first place, budgeting has generally been accepted as a primary responsibility of the top administrator, and even where legislators intervene in budget formulation and independent controllers and auditors in budget execution the administrator has still been able to control the major lines of expenditure policy. In the case of personnel, however, the civil service reform movement, especially in its earlier period and in the machine ridden jurisdictions, tended toward a form of organization for personnel management apart from and, in a certain sense, superior to the administrator. The subsequent incorporation of the general staff aspects of personnel

management into the pattern of executive operation has presented problems of the first magnitude.

Reformers and politicians have been slow to understand that responsible public administration cannot be attained by the simple process of subjecting administrative agencies to the copy-book maxim about a "government of laws." Responsible administration demands a great deal more. It requires modes of administrative behavior that go much further than meeting the mere letter of legal requirements. It requires "institutional expectancies of technical competence." The need for a civil service of high caliber derives not only from the necessity of a working force of demonstrated ability, but from the necessity of achieving and maintaining general standards of efficiency. Viewed from this standpoint, personnel management lies at the very heart of responsible administration. As in the case of budgeting, the effectiveness of personnel administration cannot be measured accurately when it operates in the sphere of its real dynamics. When it neglects its most important function, however, it is possible to determine immediately the inadequacies of personnel management. A personnel office could, of course, restrict its activity to the customary legal requirements and concern itself with the mechanics of recruitment, of job classification, of employee training, etc., and build up a very impressive statistical record to justify its appropriation requests. A budget office, likewise, could issue calls for estimates, hold hearings, out departmental estimates, and make allotments, without ever becoming involved in the life-stream of the organization's work program as such. But both budget and personnel staffs are essentially advisors to management - from the top to the bottom of the organization. It is in this advisory and facilitative role that they make their significant contribution to the achievement of responsible and sensitive public administration.

The increasing significance of personnel administration as a handmaiden of administrative management results from the enormous increase in our knowledge during recent decades about methods of handling successfully the human problems of a large organization, and of relating the techniques of personnel administration to the establishment of sound working relationships. Just as budget administration helps management attain its stated objectives through the conversion of work programs into fiscal terms which provide an adequate basis for negotiation with and control by the legislature, so personnel administration helps management attain its stated objectives through the selection and orientation of personnel so as to establish the working relationships essential to effective operation.

In the usual circumstance the personnel functions of the executive branch of government are divided among a central personnel agency, the personnel specialists in each agency, and the operating officials and supervisors - with sometimes a shadowy "no man's land" of unsettled jurisdiction regarding salary scales and other compensation matters left between personnel and budget agencies. This division of functions has characteristically led to unending struggles for control. Central

personnel agencies, especially independent civil service commissions bent on guarding the public service from political taint, have zealously guarded their powers and looked askance at agencies which sought to expand departmental personnel operations. Agency personnel officials have fought lustily against the authority of central personnel agencies and at the same time resisted bitterly the intrusion of the operating agencies in personnel management. The supervisors and operating officials frequently have called down a pox on both their houses. Now all this is a great pity, because each of the agencies has an important contribution to make to public management if it were possible to eliminate organizational rivalry and friction and get to work on the main chance.

The traditions of American politics apparently still demand the maintenance of a central personnel agency with very substantial watchdog functions. Under the laws governing the work of such agencies, they are confronted with an impossible job destined inevitably greatly to curtail their popularity with the politicians, with the job-seeking public, and with the public administrators. No agency can administer laws relating to classification, compensation, apportionment, veterans preference, appointment by open competition, in-grade pay increases, and still meet the expectations of thousands of potential appointees with political support, of employees, and of supervisors. The major attacks and most successful forays against central personnel agencies have been made when they have become either dogmatically protectionist or weak in dealings with management. Rigid and uncompromising enforcement of statutory personnel policy which does not fit the facts is just as fatal as undue pragmatism in meeting the desires of top administrators. The majority of civil service agencies attempt to pursue a balanced course with respect to both types of responsibilities.

The vinculation between the top administrator and the personnel agency is an extremely important factor in the general staff aspects of personnel management. If the personnel agency is in close contact with the administrator and can perform an effective advisory and facilitative function in the management of personnel to achieve stated objectives, a good part of the problem is solved. In recent years many students of personnel management have moved away from the notion of an independent civil service commission and in the direction of a personnel agency located within the executive office of the chief administrator. This was essentially the position of the President's Committee on Administrative Management. The Virginia Personnel Act, which makes the Governor the State personnel officer, is perhaps the most advanced legislation in this respect, although the Act is now, after six years, only beginning to be implemented, so that little operating experience is available. While the protective and controlling aspect of civil service administration continues to dominate thinking in many quarters, there is no conclusive evidence that the establishment of single-headed personnel agencies as integral parts of the top management structure has affected materially the balance of personnel agency program emphases as between control and service.

I have alluded to the gap between budget and personnel agencies in many jurisdictions, and the fact that this gap has made difficult the coordination of certain closely allied phases of personnel and fiscal management. In general, this failure of coordination has resulted in inadequate implementation of personnel agency programs with respect to classification and compensation activities, oftentimes of an extremely constructive and well-considered nature, designed to achieve more satisfactory and efficient working conditions within the service. On the other hand it has on occasion produced a certain lack of realism on the part of personnel proposals in terms of public funds available for compensation adjustments, increased pension and retirement benefits, and other elements of importance in personnel management. Budget officials have been reviled as insensitive to the human problems of public administration, and personnel officials have suffered the accusation of wanton wastefulness of public funds.

When the policing of appointments was virtually the sole task of personnel agencies the problem of its working relationships was not an especially serious one. The expansion of the operations of central personnel agencies to include all aspects of classification and compensation, in-grade increases, service ratings and discharge appeals has brought them into a relationship with general administrative management which makes the effective performance of their work of crucial importance to the administrator. They are in a position to contribute very substantially to the improvement of administration and the facilitation of the work of top management; but if their operations are doctrinaire and inefficient, they can cancel out everything good in the way of effective organization structure, efficient procedures, and intelligent programming that the administrator has been able to achieve.

Regardless of structural improvements and changes in the place of the personnel agency on the organization chart it is impossible to neutralize personnel management or to protect it from extraneous influences. There is the veterans' preference lobby, anxious to write into the bedrock of legislation statistical formulae for the advantaging of the veteran and alert to the administration of preference laws. There are the taxpayers associations, demanding vehemently that the personnel agencies resist stoutly all influences except their own. There are the various technical and professional bodies, always ready and willing to substitute their criteria for that of the agency in the selection of specialists. There are legislators, who divide their time about equally between attempting themselves to pervert the merit principle and declaiming against the executive because he sometimes takes liberties with the ark of the covenant.

The central personnel agency cannot, and except in certain rare cases does not attempt, to carry out all specialized personnel functions on its own responsibility. In a State, the central agency is so far away from operating problems that it could not possibly deal intelligently with many problems of personnel management arising in day-to-day

administration. In consequence, departmental and institutional personnel agencies have been established to handle the work that central personnel management cannot perform and to bring the processes of personnel administration into close and effective contact with line operations. As I noted earlier, the central personnel agency sometimes looks at these departmental agencies as valuable co-workers in making the personnel function an efficient tool of management, and sometimes as contenders for power.

All too frequently open conflict has marked the relationship between departmental and central personnel agencies. Perhaps because the metes and bounds of the contest are less well-defined in personnel than in budget management, and perhaps because the personnel man is a totally different breed of cat from the budgeteer, central and departmental personnel agencies have never learned to fight, forget, and cooperate in the manner of the finance people. So the departmental personnel officer spends most of his time devising ways and means to outsmart the central personnel agency, and the central agency spends all its time devising ways and means of keeping departmental officers pinned down. The whole thing is not very constructive. In Washington my friend Henry Hubbard spends practically all his time as a representative of the Council on Personnel Administration picking up the pieces after departmental-Civil Service Commission fights. In the States the pieces just don't get picked up.

In the Federal Government, Agriculture established its departmental personnel office shortly after the enactment of the Classification Act of 1923, but the practice did not become widespread until the middle 30's. Departmental personnel offices in the States received a certain amount of impetus from Social Security Board requirements about 1940. The Virginia Personnel Act of 1942 requires the appointment of departmental personnel officers in all agencies and institutions of the State government. One of the oldest and most famous non-Federal departmental personnel offices is that of the Department of Water and Power of the City of Los Angeles, an office that has broken a good deal of new ground in the advancement of personnel management in the United States.

Whatever the type of organization, fundamental personnel needs remain pretty largely constant, although there is variation at different periods in the history of any agency. Job classification according to duties is indispensable for good personnel administration and for good management as well. Recruitment, examination, selection and placement continue to constitute the core of personnel administration. Individual and group training and employee relations are coming to occupy roles of major importance and will probably soon occupy dominant positions in the personnel program.

The acid test of personnel office effectiveness, central or departmental, is the extent to which it facilitates and aids in the work of the line official. The first task of the personnel expert is to assist the operating official in defining and meeting his personnel

problems. The second is to keep out of that part of the personnel job that belongs to the operating supervisors, such as handling of training and employee relations affairs, setting qualification standards, and determining job duties. With a personnel as dominantly professional as that of the State Extension Services, the marginal utility of establishing extensive personnel management facilities within the service is relatively low. The main personnel job in the Extension Service is bound to be handled by the supervisors and by the director himself in the general process of overall management and control. At the operating level it is a truism that the less separation there is between personnel administration and operations the better it is for both, although necessary facilities to relieve supervisors of personnel record maintenance and similar functions are always economical.

On the other hand, if institutional personnel facilities useful to the service exist, they should be employed. However, departmental personnel offices are no less predatory than central civil service commissions, and a State Extension administrator will be well advised to inject extraneous agencies which he does not control into his organization at the general staff level with the greatest care and only if he is thoroughly convinced that a constructive and tenable relationship can be maintained.

In my talks of yesterday and the day before I treated at considerable length the program responsibilities of the educational administrator to the public - the principles governing public participation in the development of Extension programs and the program responsibilities of the administrator to his own organization - the methods of evolving effective local staff participation in the programming process and how the administrator organizes his team to get the job done once he has determined his course of action. I come now to the general staff aspect of planning and programming, which have significance for our consideration of the general staff as the servant of the line.

Over forty years ago Elihu Root identified what he called the "eternal issue of planning versus administration." He was actually talking about two issues, as John Millett points out: (1) the relationship of planners to administrators; (2) the relationship of plans to action. On the first point, it is essential to point out that at the operating levels of practically all large organizations the profound and I am afraid ineradicable conviction obtains that the general staff personnel in the rarified echelons spends all its time developing programs none of which will ever work in practice. There is a not inconsiderable element of truth in this assertion, but on the other hand a good part of the difficulty probably resides in a failure of communication, consultation, and explanation. This much is certain: programs to have any value must be do-able and do-able by the operating units. It is good relations, good management, and elementary horse-sense for program staff, if they are integrally organized in the general staff, to keep close to operating personnel - to know the problems of the line people, to ask their advice, and to review programs prior to action with the people who must carry the ball when operations commence.

Moreover, it is an axiom of administrative management that the program agency should do little or no direct programming itself. In the nature of the Extension Service's program operations, the vast preponderance of the work is a field responsibility, initiated and carried on in the counties. The central program unit can and should limit itself to stimulation of program operations, review and advice on programming operations, development of new devices and techniques in program development, and only as a last resort and in fields not covered by the programming of the operating and other general staff agencies should it undertake direct activities. All the arguments of efficiency, or expediency, and of tactics urge that the line agencies assume responsibility for the bulk of the programming work. Most Extension Service programming can and must be done in the counties with lay leadership under technical guidance from the county Extension staff. The educational values of the programming process, upon which the Extension Services place great reliance, can be realized only under self-propelled local effort. Finally, the tactical advantages of pushing programming responsibility onto the local staff is that it minimizes cleavage between operating officials and program staff.

John Millett has summed up this problem as follows:

"To be sure, planners are expected to be imaginative, to project bold courses of action, to weigh all possible alternatives. Operating officials may have their horizons more narrowly limited to their immediate concern. Frequently they may let reasons of convenience sway them against a proposed line of action because it may mean more work for them. These are dangers that must be guarded against. On the other hand, it is vitally important that all operating obstacles be clearly understood before a particular policy or program is adopted. Such difficulties can be most readily forecast by those having operating responsibilities. Thus a balance must always be sought between broadly conceived goals and the practical limitations of ways and means. This is just another way of saying that the gulf between planning and operations must be bridged by progressive management."

The second point concerns the execution of plans. Should planners be allowed to administer the programs in the development of which they have participated? If there is such a thing as an identifiable and distinguishable programming mentality, it may very well be that its characteristics are substantially different from those required to be a good administrator - much as the mentality of an architect differs from that of a building contractor. On the other hand, in some agencies we have seen a group of people assigned to the development of a long-range program, and then when the action period came they were assigned to supervise operations. In the TVA Mr. Lilienthal went so far as to boast of the complete merger of programming and operating responsibility:

"In the TVA the merging of planning and responsibility for the carrying out of those plans forces our technicians to make them a part of the main stream of living in the community or region; this it is that breathes into plans the breath of life. For in the Tennessee Valley the expert cannot escape from the consequences of his planning, as he can and usually does where it is divorced from execution. This has a profound effect on the experts themselves. Where planning is conceived of in this way, the necessity that experts should be close to the problem with which they are dealing is evident."

Mr. Harry Arthur Hopf, on the other hand, says that the separation of planning from performance is the sine qua non of successful organization. The major purport of the 1942 War Department reorganization was to get the general staff out of the service operations which it had accumulated and back on its major job - plans and program. I noticed in the Times the day I left New York that the civic associations were giving O'Dwyer a raking over because the Planning Commission had become too widely separated from municipal operations. So you can take your choice.

In any case, the answer is clear from the standpoint of programming operations if any at the general staff level. They should be stimulative, promotional, advisory, and experimental. Programming cannot be done at the central office, or by a staff that is not in immediate contact with operating officials. It is probably better when done by operating officials, if the process can be well-protected against the demands of routine Extension Service work long enough to get the job done.

III.B THE STAFF, THE SERVANT OF THE LINE - THE SPECIALIST STAFF

In a certain sense everyone who is employed by the Extension Service is a specialist in the particular phase of Extension operations in which he is occupied. But for the purposes of this discussion, we shall need a narrower and more exclusive definition. A specialist, I suggest, is a man or woman who has been trained for a special technical or professional calling, and who possesses technical and professional qualifications which do not ordinarily form a part of the normal equipment of every public servant. But I think we shall have to go even further. A specialist is one who not only possesses these special technical or professional qualifications, but whose duties in the agency by which he is employed require the use and exercise of those qualifications. Let us take an example. I have already referred to my great and good friend W. W. Stockberger in these essays. The early Stockberger, head of the division dealing with drug and related plants in the Bureau of Plant Industry, was a plant pathologist - clearly a scientist the discharge of whose duties involved the use and exercise of his scientific training. But the later Stockberger, Director of Personnel and adviser to the Secretary, was a general staff officer, whose training was in a technical sense without any direct application to his duties. In this context, it is probably correct to say that by specialist staff we are referring primarily to the subject matter specialists of the State extension service staff, and secondarily to the specialists on the staff of the experiment stations and in the various bureaus of the Federal Government, to the extent to which they come personally, rather than through the ordinary processes of dissemination of their research findings, in contact with extension operations.

The local agricultural, home demonstration or youth agent, although he may be a trained agronomist or farm economist or animal husbandryman, is a generalist - his task is one of demonstration and interpretation in a number of fields, scientific, economic, and social. His training is undoubtedly at times applicable to his work of demonstration and interpretation, but his primary qualification is general adaptability and capacity to engineer understanding and consent - not technical proficiency in any of the multitudinous specialties taught in the agricultural colleges. One might even venture the slightly heretical suggestion that a boy with good native intelligence from a family of successful farm people might make a very distinguished career as an extension agent, even if cursed with an honors degree in English from Harvard.

We are not here to discuss the question of whether we should have an administrative class, recruited from the cream of the Ivy League colleges, to occupy the generalist jobs in the American public service, but we are confronted and must consider the fundamental conflict between the generalist and specialist function in the Extension Service engendered by the professional tradition in the United States - a tradition that has naturally reached its apex in the Extension Service and the Department of Agriculture as a whole. Indeed, the professional tradition, grounded in the scientific preoccupation of leaders of agricultural thought in the years when the Department was first getting its growth, and in the desire to establish a service immune to the depredations of the ever-present political spoilsmen, has become so deeply imbedded in the thinking of most people connected in

any way with the Cooperative Extension Service or the Department that any method other than that of a technically trained service with technically trained people in all positions of command is simply unthinkable.

It is always bad for people, especially other people, to get in a frame of mind into which other methods and ideas cannot penetrate. Because I think a look at how some other people do business may help us greatly in training our sights on the domestic problem, I beg you to bear with me while I read some fairly lengthy excerpts from an article printed some 25 years ago in The Journal of Public Administration, an estimable quarterly published by the Institute of Public Administration in London. The article is by Sir Francis L. C. Floud, for many years Permanent Undersecretary of the British Ministry of Agriculture, and is entitled "The Sphere of the Specialist in Public Administration."

"The first consideration that occurs to me is that the sphere of the specialist in Public Administration has greatly increased in recent years. When I entered the Civil Service nearly thirty years ago the number of specialists employed in the various departments was quite small and the varieties very few. The Ministry of Agriculture employed a staff of veterinary surgeons to diagnose the scheduled diseases of animals, the Local Government Board had a small number of doctors acting as medical inspectors, the Office of Works employed a few surveyors in connection with their responsibility for Government buildings, and many departments had one or more barristers or solicitors as legal advisers. With these exceptions, practically the whole of the Civil Service, apart from the Post Office (which has always been in a separate category and with which I do not propose to deal), was composed of men who had entered the Service straight from school or college, usually after competitive examination, through a few posts in the Board of Education and elsewhere were filled by nomination. It was more or less a matter of chance whether a man found himself sent to Somerset House, or to the Local Government Board, or to some other department. In those days, therefore, the sphere of the specialist was a narrow one, his work was confined within well defined limits, and no special problems arose as to his relations with his official colleagues in the administrative and executive branches of the Service.

"At the present time the position is very different. We still have the ordinary rank and file of the Service normally recruited by competitive examinations designed to secure the cream of the products of secondary and university education, and in theory freely interchangeable between one department and another. But side by side with them we have a large and increasing army of specialists concerned with almost every form of human endeavour and drawn from almost every profession, and these men are necessarily tied down to definite departments within which the work arises for which their special qualifications are required.

"It is not my function to discuss whether the change which, as I have indicated, has taken place in the nature and personnel of our Public Administration is beneficial or not. We have to

accept the situation as laid down for us by our political masters, and we are only concerned to endeavour to see that it works as smoothly and harmoniously as possible.

"It is obvious, however, that the greatly widened sphere of the specialist in Public Administration has created a number of problems which need careful thought and attention on our part, and I propose to indicate some of them in the hope that they will be taken up and developed in subsequent discussion by others whose experience or point of view may be different from my own.

"In the first place it may be pertinent to call attention to one feature of our Public Administration which, so far as I know, is peculiarly English. It is said that the English nation is proverbially suspicious of experts, and whether that it so or not it is certainly the case that it has been almost invariably the practice that the members of the Government of this country are selected not on the ground of their expert knowledge of the department of which they take charge, but because they are men of affairs who are capable of coming to decisions, not on their own knowledge, but on the evidence submitted to them by others. It is no doubt this practice that accounts for the frequent success of lawyers in political life owing to their experience of weighing evidence and their ability to state a case on information supplied by others. On the whole, this system has worked well, largely because each new Minister, however ignorant he may be of the work of his office, can rely on finding a body of disinterested and experienced officials who can supply him with all the evidence and information he needs, and can advise whether any policy he proposes is practicable. Indeed, I am not sure that if the secrets of our hearts were revealed we should not say that we prefer to have an open-minded though ignorant Minister to one who comes to his office with a modicum of knowledge and the belief that he knows more than his permanent advisers on all the problems of his department. At any rate I will express my own view that whatever may be the sphere of the specialist in Public Administration it should not extend to the political sphere. I should be sorry if it was considered necessary that the Minister of Health must be a doctor, the Minister of Agriculture a farmer, the President of the Board of Trade a merchant, or the First Commissioner of Works a builder, and I am satisfied that the instinct of the British nation has been sound in standing for civilian control of the fighting departments, though that is a feature of our constitutional system which foreigners find it most difficult to understand.

"It cannot be denied that with the growth of the number of specialists in Government service there are elements of possible danger and friction which ought to be faced and obviated. The Civil Service has always been inclined to regard itself as a very close corporation, and the rank and file of ordinary Civil Servants are apt to look with some suspicion on outsiders who are introduced into the Service otherwise than through the strait gate and by the narrow path of competitive examination, which cannot as a rule be the door of en-

trance for specialists. On the other hand, I think it is true that many of the specialist officers consider that they are kept in a position of undue subordination by the administrative class of the Service, who have not the technical knowledge which in the opinion of the specialists is essential in order to arrive at correct decisions on the administrative problems involved.

"We are brought, therefore, to consider whether the sphere of specialists should be confined to advice on questions referred to them, or whether they should be placed in a position of control, subject of course to Ministers, and be given executive power to direct the carrying out of whatever policy is decided upon.

"It is probably that my own views on this subject will not be regarded as acceptable to the extremists on either side, but they are the result of a 'good many years' experience, and I believe they have been arrived at without prejudice. I have not myself had the benefit of a scientific education or a specialist training, but I yield to no one in my respect and admiration for those who have, or in my conviction that the government of the country cannot be carried on under modern conditions without depending largely on the services of specialists. At the same time I have a firm belief in the value of early years of training in a Government office, often on duties of a routine and inglorious character, as the best possible preparation for dealing with the problems of administration. I think that the truth of this belief was strikingly emphasized during the war when we saw so many of the Second Division Class, who had previously been engaged on such work as statistics or accounts, rising to positions of responsibility in which they had almost daily to make decisions which, before the war, would have been considered of sufficient importance to be placed before the Cabinet. The machinery of government has become so complex and is so different from the conditions in outside life that I doubt if the possession of even the highest technical qualifications can, as a rule, compensate for the absence of an early training in the working of the Government machine.

"I cannot help feeling also that, as a general rule, the specialist is rightly so enthusiastic about his own particular work that he is in danger of lacking that sense of proportion and that recognition of political, financial, and practical limitations which every administrator must learn to possess.

"My conclusion is, therefore, that, as a general rule, the sphere of the specialist should be mainly advisory rather than executive, though I recognize that there must always be exceptions, both as regards particular individuals and as regards certain branches of work. Everyone is familiar with instances of men who unite specialist qualifications with conspicuous administrative capacity, but I am convinced that on the whole the efficiency of the public service would be reduced if executive authority was normally and universally placed in the hands of specialists. Any such change would alter fundamentally the conception of the permanent Civil Service as we have hitherto known it, and it would undoubtedly impair the prospect of recruiting to the ranks of the

Civil Service the pick of the products of our educational system. I believe, moreover, that from the point of view of the specialists themselves a change of existing practice would be disadvantageous. Executive responsibility is a burden as well as a privilege, and it is a burden which, at any rate in the realm of science, is not likely to facilitate research or the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake. In the case, moreover, of specialists in such departments as the law, medicine, architecture, or land agency the assumption of administrative and executive functions has the effect of withdrawing the officer concerned to a large degree from the active exercise of his specialist functions and thereby renders him progressively less valuable as a pure specialist.

"While, however, I believe that it is wise to separate administrative and specialist functions and to provide for different methods of recruitment and separate ladders of promotion, subject always to some interchange in exceptional cases, I believe also that the question is one which we should be wise not to attempt to delimit with too much uniformity or exactness. We English are an illogical nation, we have built up our civilization without any attempt to reduce our constitutions to writing, and we have, as our critics tell us, an incurable habit of trusting to muddling through all the problems that confront us. But, at the same time, we are an intensely practical people and we might say that Solvitur ambulando (muddling through) is our national motto. Personally, I think it is a good motto, and consequently I should never be anxious to attempt to settle controversies by exact definitions or by the method of finding a formula, which appears to be the object of most of the international conferences since the war, but which when found does not seem to carry us any further on the road to peace and prosperity. The spirit is more than the letter or the written word and the problem of the specialist in public administration depends far more upon cultivating in all ranks of the Service a spirit of goodwill and mutual co-operation than upon any precise delimitation of functions. What we have to aim at is harmonious team work, and if that is present the elements of possible danger and friction in the relations between lay and specialist Civil Servants will disappear.

"At the same time, if specialists are to be mainly employed as advisers I consider that there are certain conditions which they are entitled to demand. In the first place they have a right to demand that their advice should be sought. I have known cases in which administrative officers have come to decisions on technical questions without ever consulting the technical advisers of the department. That is clearly indefensible and may lead to serious mistakes being made. But if specialists are entitled to be consulted are they also entitled to claim that their advice must be taken and acted upon? Here I think we must distinguish between two different classes of problems. A specialist may recommend that a particular policy should be adopted by his department. In such a case he is not entitled to claim that his advice must be taken. Wider considerations than the intrinsic merits of the proposal have to be weighed, and it may be found that what is desirable is not expedient,

and that consequently the advice of the specialist must be rejected. For instance, if I may take an imaginary example that might arise in my own department, we may suppose that, in order to check the spread of wart disease in potatoes, which is one of the statutory duties of the Ministry, a proposal is made by one of our technical advisers that an order should be made prohibiting the import of seed potatoes of susceptible varieties from Scotland. It might be true that such an order would be the only effective means of absolutely preventing the introduction of disease, but, on the other hand, such an order might irretrievably damage the potato growing industry of some parts of England to an extent far greater than would be caused by the possible introduction of disease. In such a case the final decision must be made by the administrative authorities of the department, subject to the Minister's approval, and the specialist will have no reasonable ground for complaint if his proposal is rejected.

"The other class of case is where a policy has been decided on, and a question arises as to the best method of carrying it out. If such a question raises technical issues the specialist advisers of the department must be consulted, and in such a case their advice ought, save in very exceptional circumstances, to be taken. To take an example, again, which might arise in my own department. Suppose that it was decided on purely financial grounds to abandon the policy of slaughter in cases of foot-and-mouth disease, and to adopt instead the policy of isolation, treatment, and cure. In such a case the decision as to the period of isolation, the methods of treatment, and the specifics used should be taken without question on the advice of the technical veterinary officers of the department, and they would have very reasonable cause for complaint if their advice was overruled by a lay administrator. Similarly, in the numerous cases which arise in every Government department when reference has to be made to the legal adviser of the department for an opinion as to the interpretation of an Act of Parliament or as to the legality of a course proposed to be taken, but I cannot imagine any sane administrative officer doing anything but accept as final the opinion given. Indeed, as we at the Ministry of Agriculture know particularly well, it is impossible to overestimate the influence which a wise, experienced, and tactful legal adviser exercises over the whole range of policy of the department without having any executive power. It only requires time before other kinds of specialists, if they are equally wise and tactful, acquire a corresponding degree of influence."

Although the situation is loosening somewhat with the gradual democratization of the English civil service, even today the career ladders for the administrative class, recruited mainly from Oxford and Cambridge graduates with so-called cultural degrees, even if in the natural sciences, and for the technical and professional employees are quite separate and distinct, and the posts of command are in practically all instances reserved for members of the administrative class.

Obviously, if the specialist and administrative groups of the Extension Service personnel occupied the same relative position as that de-

scribed by the former British Undersecretary, the problem of relationships between the specialists and the line officers would never be raised, since both the State extension director and the line official would be members of the administrative class linked together by the indissoluble bonds of the old-school-tie in resistance against any incursions whatever by upstart scientists. The specialist would counsel and advise, but his counsel and advice would be humbly given and he would never be permitted to forget the stringent limitations upon his role in the affairs of the Service. This is undoubtedly one way to keep the specialist staff in its place, although whether it is the way to keep the specialist staff effective is something else altogether.

Let us have a closer look at the place and function of the specialist staff in the Extension Service program. I know of no better source of guidance in this matter than the very impressive report of the 1946 Workshop committee on "The Extension Staff and Organization," some of the members of which are with us today. Since Sections VIII, IX and X of this report are so directly in point, and form so very excellent a base from which to proceed in our consideration of relations between the specialist and operating staff, I beg your permission to read these parts of the document:

VIII. Coordination of Specialists' Work

"Specialists are an essential part of the Extension organization. They keep county workers informed on research developments and interpret data so that it may be properly applied toward the improvement of farm and home life.

"The expansion of Extension work into new fields and the increase in number of county workers to be served, have resulted in an increase in number of Extension specialists in many states. There has also been an expansion in the scope, volume and complexity of the specialist's job. The specialist performs a staff function and is not responsible for administrative matters. His duties fall into the following phases:

"A. Planning. He assists with the development of county and state programs through observing and analyzing situations and adapting factual information to the situation.

"B. Teaching. He translates research information into common terms and instructs county workers regarding facts and principles which can be applied toward the solution of problems. He trains county workers in the use of effective methods and procedures and assists them in training leaders.

"C. Leading. The specialist furnishes leadership in his subject matter field. Through study, observation and contact he is well informed on research and practice.

"As a staff member the specialist is responsible to the Director. The subject matter should be in harmony with the research and teach-

ing departments.

"It seems evident that (1) for specialists to function effectively in their own and related fields without developing individualized programs and (2) that programs may be properly coordinated in solving problems involving one or more subject matter fields, there should be more overall leadership and supervision than can be given by the Director personally.

"This may be accomplished by:

"A. Creating a new position.

"B. Assigning this duty to a staff member in addition to his present duties.

"C. A chairman of a special committee of specialists set up for this purpose.

"A person while acting as leader of specialists bears the same relation to them as supervisors of other groups in the Extension Service bear to the group they supervise. He coordinates, teaches and acts as leader. He cooperates with other supervisors in planning programs and assists in coordinating state and county programs by organizing the services of specialists so that the best possible information can be brought to bear on these programs.

"Employment of part-time specialists may be necessary; their employment when the subject matter in question requires full time of one or more specialists is generally poor organization procedure.

IX. Coordination of Programs

"It is the duty of the Extension Director to make sure that Extension programs are effectively coordinated. This involves participation on every level of Extension organization. In order that definite responsibility in this field may be centered in one person it would seem advisable for the Director to place this responsibility with the person who is assigned as leader of specialists. As such he would work with specialists, supervisors and leaders on the state level. Coordination should be coincident with program building.

X. Qualifications of a Specialist

"A. Background. It is preferable that the individual have a rural background, with some farm or homemaking experience.

"B. Training. (1) Minimum requirement of Bachelor's degree from an institution of recognized standing. (2) Broad basic scientific training. (3) Major emphasis in field of specialty. (4) Graduate study usually helpful.

"C. Experience. (1) Farm or homemaking experience desirable. (2) County Extension experience desirable but not prac-

licable for some types of specialists. (3) Experience in working with the public in a related field may substitute for previous Extension experience.

- "D. Characteristics. (1) Effective teacher, able (a) to assist agents in organizing and developing programs, (b) to effectively use applicable teaching techniques, (c) to evaluate his own and agents' programs. (2) Ability to plan and cooperate with others, to analyze his field in relation to the whole field of agriculture or home economics, to prepare his program of work and to be able to successfully correlate his project with that of other specialists. (3) Vision and leadership. (4) Sympathetic attitude to associates. (5) Clear thinker and systematic mind. (6) Effective speaker and writer, able to interpret and present ideas through bulletins, reports and otherwise in a language understandable by and appealing to the public. (7) Tactful. (8) Enthusiastic.
- "E. Philosophy. His work is a contribution to a general plan for the betterment of rural life and living. Community welfare should be his goal; not the promotion of his own project.
- "F. Selection. Extension specialist in any subject matter field should in general be acceptable to the subject matter department."

Here, it seems to me, we have a pretty good picture of what an Extension Service specialist ought to look like, and in general terms some fairly definite benchmarks with respect to his place in the Extension scheme. Now the problem that confronts us derives from the fact that the extension specialist is a specialist, which is another way of saying that he has either an undeveloped or totally lacking sense of administration (if he had a sense of administration he would already have crawled over on the management side where the salaries are better), and from the fact that by and large the local extension workers are not in a position to whittle him down to life size when he gallops into their midst astride his pet project.

On the first point I should like to make my position unequivocally clear. I wouldn't give the powder proverbially required to blow him to Hades for a specialist who has not discovered the only true path to salvation. A man who works in a relatively narrow field for a fairly long time without becoming completely enamoured of his own reflection in all the shiny facets of his beautiful little facts is either a poor scientist or a born administrator gone wrong, and therefore completely useless to anybody. A good specialist is by definition just a little bit crazy, and anyone who would have it otherwise is no true friend of science.

Granted this concept of the specialist personality, and for all the caricaturing I do believe it to be essentially correct, let us examine ad seriatim the duties of the specialist staff as the Committee on

Extension Staff and Organization outlined them in 1946, with a view to exploring the implications of their various duties for the problem of constructive relationships between the line and the specialist staff.

The Committee tells us, with good reason, that the specialist staff has an important role in planning and programming. Its language in this regard seems rather carefully to guard the function of the specialist as a consultative and not an administrative participant in the planning operation. In fact, in the introductory paragraph the Committee insists that all of the functions performed by the specialist are staff functions, and that he has no responsibility for administrative matters. Now this is easy to say but sometimes very difficult to do. What is the substance of the planning and program building process in the Extension Service, and where is it that the specialists get off the reservation and fail to conduct themselves as staff officers? The Committee on Extension Program and Process of Program Making says, in its 1946 report, that the functions of those responsible for program development are:

- "1. The determination of basic problems, major objectives and the delineation of community boundaries, local units and neighborhoods for more effective program development.
2. The development of procedures.
3. The training of staff and leaders in the techniques and procedures of program planning.
4. The review and approval of recommended plans and programs.
5. The integration and coordination of plans and programs.
6. The publication of the programs.
7. The consideration of the most effective methods and techniques to be used in executing the program including the selection and training of leaders.
8. The evaluation of programs and results accomplished.
9. The determination of adjustments and changes needed in programs to take care of special problems and emergencies as they arise.
10. The fostering of cooperation among various agencies and organizations in the development and execution of the program."

Furthermore, we must note that the program building process of the Extension Service is predicated upon lay leadership. Programming, therefore, becomes an integral part of the educational function itself and, from the standpoint of methods and techniques, an operating or line activity. From the standpoint of program content, we may assume, I think, that programming is preparation for action rather than action itself, and accordingly an integral part of general staff work in organization management.

The basic problem in maintaining the specialist in a staff status with respect to programming activities, and in keeping him from crossing up and being crossed up by the people who bear the operating responsibilities, is two fold: first, and this goes for all the work of a specialist, vigorous idealogical indoctrination in the nature of the staff function; second, extreme care in laying out the programming activities and in guarding the techniques of specialist intervention in these activi-

ties. On the first point, I suppose the best pedagogical technique, since we are all teachers here, would be to make the specialist write one hundred times on his blackboard every morning when he comes to work: "I must never give an order." Along with this refined torture, he might be forced to sit in his chair facing a Kleig light while a loudspeaker blares at him Mooney and Reilly's chapter on "The Staff Phase of Functionalism," in which they say:

"Staff service in organization means the service of advice or counsel, as distinguished from the function of authority or command. This service has three phases, which appear in a clearly integrated relation: the informative, the advisory, and the supervisory.

"The informative phase refers to those things which authority should know in framing its decisions; the advisory, to the actual counsel based on such information; the supervisory, to both preceding phases as applied to all the details of execution. It is through this last phase that the informative and advisory phases become operative throughout an entire organization. If authority needs all the information that is requisite in making its decisions, those down the line, to whom is delegated the carrying out of orders, need the information requisite to a truly intelligent executive. Staff service, in this phase, may be called a service of knowledge, and, as such, it supplies the final necessity in a true horizontal coordination of organized effort.

"Here arises a vital question. How are we to distinguish in psychic terms between the functions of line and staff? In terms of organization the answer is simple. It is the function of the staff merely to counsel; that of the line, and the line only, to command. But these terms may be too simple. They leave unanswered the main question. Why should the line commander need the services of a staff of counselors? Why, as commander, assuming him to be fit for command, should he not be in counsel sufficient unto himself?

"It would be easy to reply that, in every large organization, the information the line leader needs in framing his decisions requires more than mere individual counselors; it requires nothing less than organized staff counsel. But when we advance to the next phase of staff service - from the informative to the advisory - we encounter another aspect of the line and staff relation. Here we find the staff function exercising an authority of its own, an authority that is no less real than line authority, even though it includes no right of command.

"The point is that the line represents the authority of man; the staff, the authority of ideas. The true value of a staff official has only one measure - his ability to generate ideas that are of value to line authority, and his efficiency in imparting these ideas to the whole organization. Through this authority, inherent in sound and workable ideas, the staff official may frequently advance to important line command. Likewise,

advancement in line leadership may often depend on the leader's capacity to generate workable ideas, quite as much as anything inherent in his own right of command.

"... The service of knowledge in the sphere of execution has been defined by us as the supervisory phase of staff service. This term means more than general oversight. Detailed supervision is what is meant, and for such supervision inspection is a better name. So important is this service of inspection that some organizers distinguish between the planning staff, the operating staff, and the inspection staff. Inspection, however, pertains mainly to operations and may therefore, be included in the operating or supervisory staff function.

"One other aspect of this service of knowledge remains to be considered, and some may regard this as the most important of all. It is not alone the leader who has important things to tell his subordinates, either directly or through organized staff service. These subordinates may have important things to tell the leader, things that he should know in the exercise of his leadership. They have important things to tell each other also, and this mutuality of things to be made known runs through all relations of superiors, subordinates, and equals, in every link of the scalar chain. The infiltration of a true service of knowledge cannot be conceived as merely moving from the top downward. No organization can be truly unified in spirit until it has evolved a similar service moving from the bottom upward. It is well in organization that all should have the right to be heard, for it is only through this right, an organized machinery for its expression, and a stimulus to its exercise, that a truly informed leadership becomes conceivable or possible."

I hope that by now we have laid the groundwork for a reasonable consensus on the nature of the staff function in relation to the job of the Extension Staff specialist. Edward Sait, in his book on American Parties and Elections, tells the story of Grover Cleveland's first presidential campaign. It seems that immediately before Cleveland's train was scheduled to pull out of a town where he had made a campaign speech, he was standing on the porter's box at the entrance to his car chatting with a group of friends and supporters. The porter touched his arm gently and said: "Scuse me, suh, but de rules say you cain't stand on dis platfawm." Cleveland, who thought to make a little political hay with the remark, replied: "Why, George, that's what I thought a platform was for - stand on." To this the porter replied, without cracking a smile, "Nossuh, boss, a platform is to git in on, not to stand on." Similarly, I think we might put this phase of our consideration of the staff specialist's function to rest with the observation that the staff is to be leaned upon, not used to beat people with.

Proceeding now to the problem of the layout of programming activities to insure constructive participation by the specialists in their staff capacities, I think the basic decision must come on the point of the combination of planning, operating and inspection staff. Since Extension programming is a mixed operating and staff function, and since

the specialist has an important role to play in programming, it will not be easy to maintain precise distinctions, but some overall basing points should be discoverable.

The "Suggested Chart for Guidance of Extension Organization," developed by the 1946 Workshop committee on The Extension Staff and Organization indicates very definitely that the specialist staff is to exercise supervisory functions with respect to program content, training, analysis, and relationships, over the district agricultural and home economics supervisors, and through them over the county agents. Let me say emphatically that there is nothing inherently wrong in this. It violates in a certain sense the administrative dogma of the unity of command, but many of the more sophisticated students of public administration believe that a workable distinction between technical and administrative responsibility is possible which will overcome the practical difficulties encountered by a man who has two masters. My distinguished colleagues, Professors Macmahon and Millett, have even written a book demolishing the whole theory of unity of command in its pure and pristine form. So the argument here, if there is an argument, is over the tactical problem, not the problem of principle.

This is neither the time nor place to explore the factors which in some circumstances justify and in others prohibit the establishment of duality of command in field operations, but I suggest that if difficulty has been encountered in keeping the specialists operating in staff, rather than line, status, one of the principal explanations may lie in the fact that their supervisory functions in relation to the district supervisors, plus their natural and inevitable preoccupation with projects in the field of their specialty and their conviction of the primordial importance of the practical application of the theories and ideas they have developed, provides an inviting steppingstone from the work of providing information and advice to the work of taking over at least a part of the function of command.

Referring again to the work of the 1946 Committee on Extension Program and Process of Program Making, I think we may readily agree to the committee's proposal that the specialist has an important role to play in the work of the State program committee. Whether, as the report suggests, Extension staff members - and I think this applies to the general staff, specialists, supervisors, and others - ought to be members of the committee or ought to serve in a consultative relationship depends in large measure on established local ways of doing business. As a general rule, principles of sound management would dictate the restriction of actual voting membership in the committee to those who must eventually exercise substantial direct political or administrative authority, and incur substantial political and administrative responsibility, in the execution of the program. The director of the State extension service in any case retains the ultimate veto power over the work of the State committee - indeed, the committee is only advisory to him in most cases - but few directors are anxious to make much use of the veto power in an operation which depends so heavily for its success on large-scale voluntary cooperation. This argues, on the whole, that the hired hands, except for the very top echelons of the command (and I would include here representation of the

district supervisors), probably ought to participate in the work of the State program committee in an advisory and consultative capacity.

Specialist staff has a function of primary importance to fulfill in the second stage of the programming operation, when plans must be developed and schedules designed for the collection of the basic data and information upon which local and State programs must be built. But here, again, the question arises with respect to ultimate responsibility. Are specialists to have the final say about the information to be collected, even in the field of their specialization? I should like to point out that decisions on points such as this have more to do with the way the district supervisors and local agents spend their time than many more momentous directives on major policy issued by the director himself. The specialist is not to be criticized if he conceives of the State extension program as really a basic program in agronomy or animal industry with a lot of probably unnecessary bric-a-brac tied on. His point of view, we must remember, is pretty much like that of our friends across Louisiana's western frontier, who urged everyone to "Buy United States Victory Bonds and Help Texas Win the War."

The third phase of programming, the committee tells us, involves the definition of the community boundaries and local units to be used in program building. This is probably in its essence a problem of local geo-politics, although considerations of land-types and land-use may figure in the establishment of certain area boundaries. It seems to me that this phase of the work can probably be best carried out by the district supervisors and local agents themselves, with the pooling of their common experience in the various parts of the State, and might well be conducted with a minimum of topside gerrymandering, amateur or expert. In a more serious vein, there is an acute problem of coordination of local administrative areas in practically all parts of the country, and in any program involving so extensive a mobilization of social forces as does that of the Cooperative Extension Service impetus and efficiency may undoubtedly be gained by the serious attempt to develop common geographic units, or at least common geographic nuclei, for as many activities as possible. In some regions the problem is so serious that the experiment stations have already begun to study the possibilities of improved local geographic arrangements. I need not point out that this is a difficulty common to all levels of government, and that the Federal and State governments have made about as big a mess of the coordination of sub-Federal and sub-State administrative areas as decades upon decades of unplanned proliferation can possibly make. It may well be that there is a place for an extension staff specialist on just this problem of agricultural geo-politics. Staff specialists likewise have a role, although I doubt if it can be permitted to become a dominant role, in the development of programming procedures. Procedures must of necessity be applicable across-the-board, and programming methods must be designed mainly in terms of the local human and other resources with which the program deals. While a general staff unit responsible for spearheading programming and planning operations would undoubtedly develop in time a considerable expertise in methods, the scope of special staff operations on procedures design probably should be kept subordinated to the determinations of the operating heads. The same observations apply with regard to the determination of scope and

subject matter of the training activities undertaken in behalf of the operating staff members involved in programming, as well as in the training of lay leaders. With respect to the latter group, I suggest that every possible measure should be taken to safeguard the integral position of the local extension agent, home demonstration agent, and youth worker vis-a-vis the lay leaders in the local community. The Cooperative Extension Service will rise or fall with the work of the county extension employees. They can be helped or they can be hindered by the district offices or by the home office, but the final measure of accomplishment of the Service rests in what they do as they live and move among the farm people in their counties.

The establishment of subject-matter and special interest committees in the counties in connection with programming is another decision which must turn on the experience and appraisals of the line, and one in which the special staff may render an important advisory service. If such special committees are established, the specialist staff comes into programming in a highly effective way in the formation of corresponding subject matter committees, along with experiment station and other college staff, as well as others prepared to contribute advisory and consultative services to the local extension agents in the furtherance of the work of the local special committees. It seems elementary to point out that the lines of communication, however, between the local and State special committees should follow the channels of administrative authority, so that the local personnel, the district personnel, and the State personnel in the line of administrative command may at all times be fully conversant with and in control of the developments in special committee activities.

The advisory services of the specialist staff in assistance of the State director in determining the major objectives in the counties and in the State as a whole would, of course, ordinarily be channeled through specialist staff work in behalf of the general State committee on program. The process of State program formulation, however, frequently involves values additional to those of general program content - factors such as the institutional facilities of the Service in relation to the proposed program - and at this stage of program development the State director is thrown into a special direct contact with his staff - both general and specialist - from which, I am told, some of the major values of organization unity and morale are frequently derived.

The seventh major phase of program development, according to the 1946 Workshop Committee, is that of developing, integrating and coordinating county and state plans and programs, and the outfitting of plans and programs with the necessary facilities for execution, i.e., the development of correlative administrative, supervisory and operational programs. Three types of decisions are involved at this stage of programming. First, a political decision must be made in the nature of a preliminary selection of program objectives. The extension director must establish at least a system of priorities on the basis of which the subsequent phases of the programming operation may be executed. This involves: (a) the elimination of certain projects or proposed lines of action that are either outside the scope of the existing authorizations or which present problems in the securing of authorizations which the Service is not prepared at the time to undertake; (b) the elimination of certain projects or proposed

operations which are currently undesirable because of the precedents and implied commitments which they involve - a special program in behalf of one geographical or commodity group, for example, which the Extension Service is not prepared to extend to all similarly circumstanced geographical or commodity groups; (c) the establishment, among the program proposals that remain, of a framework of evaluation and a set of basing points permitting a logically consistent review of the proposals in relation to the central theme of the State program; (d) the allocation of priorities preliminary to technical and administrative appraisal of projects, costing, and final review. These are the major political decisions that must be made by the director, in consultation with his political advisers, and they will turn on essentially political considerations. Second, the proposed programs must be reviewed from the standpoint of technical feasibility. I recall with profound unhappiness, for example, the time I was caught in the middle, as State budget director, between the vaccinators and the exterminators in the Virginia Bang's disease program, because a technical question through administrative inadvertence got thrown up where it did not belong and should never have been permitted to arrive - at the overall State policy level. The ensuing row, of which I was the unwitting godfather, so shook my faith in expert omniscience and fortified my conviction of the congenial baseness of some sorts of natural scientists that I carry to this day an instinctive hostility to all animal husbandrymen. While all this had nothing to do with the Extension Service in Virginia, it does illustrate the importance of a careful and competent technical review of program proposals and a firm technical recommendation. Moreover, if an animal diseases man in the State Department of Agriculture would do to a budget director what was done to me, I shudder to think what an Extension Service specialist, with the curious sense of professional and administrative ethics common to the academic halls, would do to an Extension director. Finally, after the specialists have had the opportunity to get the program proposals with respect to those aspects, and those aspects only, which turn upon considerations of technical feasibility, the general staff people have their innings, and the program gets priced by the budget and finance officers and analyzed in terms of manpower by the personnel officers. The role of the specialist in this seventh stage of program development is, as I have suggested, one of great importance; at the same time it is a very limited and specific function which he is called upon to perform, and if the administrative environment is to be kept so organized that he will do a staff job from a staff viewpoint he must be held to the specific specialist staff function which has been mentioned.

The eighth step in programming involves the formalization of the projects into a definite working body of approved objectives. This is again a top policy determination which the director must make with such advice and assistance, and under such restrictions and limitations as inhere in his working relationship with the president of the college and other administrative superiors if any. Neither the function nor the responsibility for the proper performance of the function are delegable, and the director's professional reputation is probably built on the foundations of his judgments with respect to program more than upon any other single factor. This is no place for a respectable specialist.

Step number nine, the 1946 Workshop Committee tells us, is the determination of effective methods and techniques to be used in carrying

out the program. The basic assumptions underlying this step will necessarily already have been made by the general staff in its work on organizational, budgetary, personnel and other requirements for program implementation, so the problems of methods and techniques are by no means wide at this stage. While there is nothing sacred about the abracadabra of the general staff in working up its data on program operating requirements, if extensive revision of the work of the budget and personnel people is required at this late date, it is a sign either of inefficient general staff work or of poor relations between general staff and operating officials. This ninth step is one to which almost the entire staff - operating, specialist and general - ought to have a good deal to contribute. In the final analysis the director's determinations probably must weigh more heavily the views of the operating officials than any other group, since, if they are competent, they should be in a better position than anyone else to know what techniques and methods will best accomplish the objective in view of the materials with which the service must work.

Step number ten is the publicization of the program. This involves both the preparation of the program document, which is in itself a very important and specialized job, and the organization of meetings to permit a full explanation of the program to all members of the Extension staff - central, district and county, to all members of the Experiment Station staff, and to the members of the college teaching staff. Here, again, is the sort of operation into which all staff members ought to be drawn. One very knowledgeable land-grant college official once told me that the program explanation part of the process was, in his judgment, even more important to the Extension staff than to the people to whom the program is explained. He based this statement on two points: (1) program explanation, under fire and questioning, accomplishes a great deal in simplifying and sharpening the logic of the program argument - the lines of which tend to remain a little blurred for even most staff members as long as they talk mainly to each other in the extremely generalized language which educational people habitually use on professional associates; (2) staff members, including Extension staff, who may be lukewarm because the program does not contain exactly the right ingredients in the precise proportions which they prefer, gain conviction from explaining the program to outsiders. To paraphrase the story about the unpopular political candidate, the program may be a dirty such-and-such, but after all it is our such-and-such. My impression is that few types of Extension activity could contribute more to the restoration of the dignity and equanimity of the specialist, which is bound to be ruffled in the program making process, than the opportunity to discourse learnedly and often about the large plans which his agency proposes to put into operation.

The last three steps in the programming process outlined by the 1946 Workshop committee are concerned with program execution rather than program formulation. The Committee correctly emphasizes the importance of systematic program evaluation and appraisal, and the establishment of pilot projects in selected counties for the testing of program development techniques. It calls attention to the importance of continuous inventorying of program applicability and validity, and of program modifications to meet changing conditions. It urges the undertaking of systematic efforts to interest other organizations and agencies. All of these are

operational problems, basic responsibility for which must rest with the line officials. On the other hand, I should be remiss if I failed to point out that by the nature of his work the specialist tends to get into particularly intimate relationships with certain groups and segments of the agricultural economy, especially the very large agricultural operators, certain specialty producers, certain large processors, etc. For example, I was told several years ago that there are some organizations and a few people in Virginia with which the Extension director can deal really effectively only through one or two of his apple specialists, or one or two of his tobacco experts, as the case may be, whether the subject under consideration has anything to do with apples or tobacco or not. As Bill Jump remarked about budgets, the government exists to serve the great masses of the people, and not to develop a model of precise and orderly administrative organization, desirable though the latter may be. The problem, stated in these terms, is a pragmatic one, and the director's decision will doubtless turn on pragmatic considerations. But he ought to realize just what he is eventually headed for when he uses his specialists outside of their staff environment.

The remaining aspects of the specialist's functions, teaching and leading, may be treated with some brevity. Teaching, of course, is of the essence of the staff function. As I think back on my own administrative experience, it seems to me that I actually spent most of my time teaching. The staff meeting at its best is always an administrative seminar. Even the individual face-to-face contacts of almost any administrator are chiefly significant for their educational content and effect. We have long since learned that issuing orders is one of the poorest ways in the world to get results. But I'm not sure that we have yet learned how to do the sort of teaching that must supplant in practice the formal authoritarian framework.

Good specialists may be good teachers, but they are not necessarily so. I am not speaking at this time of the pedagogical gymnastics to which we refer as the science of education, but of the fundamental spiritual and social outlook which, more than anything else, conditions the effectiveness of the specialist in the sort of teaching he must do within the program of the Extension Service. The fundamental conflict is, like most fundamental conflicts, a problem of values. Which is more important, the subject matter in which the specialist works, before which he burns his altar fires, and on which he builds his hopes for immortality, or this tremendous work of narrowing the gap between what we know and what we do? Frankly, I have some very profound doubts in my own mind about a good number of the platitudes which we have been repeating for the last twenty-odd years. We have insisted that specialization and research enriched teaching, and that teaching lent depth and direction to research. I am certain, of course, that research and specialization do enrich teaching. Indeed, it is the only way in which teaching can be saved from utter atrophy. But do research and specialization by the people who are doing the teaching contribute to or detract from the quality of their teaching? Does teaching do very much more than lose momentum for the man who is really proficient and interested in research? I think a very good case might be made for the conscious and purposeful development of a class of educational brokers - translators and popularizers of research, teachers and interpreters, but not inheritors of the research tradition which is

the touchstone of current-day success in academic work. I suggest also that the great majority of the graduate schools of our time, which apparently have as their primary and perhaps unique objective the training of more college instructors, offer very little to the type of person needed for the so-called "specialist" jobs in the Extension Service. Indeed, I am not certain that a good deal of the graduate instruction currently offered, with its tremendous emphasis upon mere technical scholarship, does not constitute more of a handicap than a help in doing a good job for the farm people of this country. The time is coming, and probably pretty soon, when brilliant young M.A.'s and Ph.D.'s in various agricultural sciences including the social sciences will be a dime a dozen. But if this training and education is to serve a significant social purpose, I believe that some very radical changes in our notions of both method and content in the graduate schools, especially the graduate schools of the land-grant colleges, must be brought about. Then, I believe, and only then will you get the sort of people who can be trained on the job for eventual effectiveness as the specialist-brokers that not only the Extension Service but every adult education organization and agency in America so urgently needs.

I come finally to the specialist function of leadership. It seems to me that the most important factor in the maintenance of the staff relationship in supplying leadership in the several subject-matter fields is that of continuous topside reiteration of the principle that the specialist's leadership be exercised either through the line official, by advice and assistance to the operator, or in those cases where direct specialist intervention may be profitably and safely permitted, by work under the auspices and control of the operating official. The maintenance of the integrity of the county agent's position vis-a-vis the local groups with which he works is a prime desideratum of extension administration. His effectiveness cannot be compromised by the sporadic intervention of brilliant specialist from headquarters who rush in and rush out performing major and minor miracles. The extension service does not need miracles; it needs intelligent steady plugging away. The whole idea is built around the county agent, and all the impedimenta at headquarters, including the specialists, are justified only on the basis that they enable the agent to do a better job - not that they substitute something else for the job the agent is supposed to do. No amount of technical proficiency, or letter-perfectness in the latest research developments, can replace the inside-track which the local agent occupies by virtue of his day-by-day, month-by-month, and year-by-year living with the people whom Extension serves. The lowly county agricultural agent, the home demonstration worker, and the youth worker are Extension's past, present and future. You'd better take care of them.

IV. COMMUNICATIONS - THE LIFE LINE OF AN ORGANIZATION

Some weeks ago I had occasion to visit one of the more pleasant enterprises conducted by the Commonwealth of Virginia, devoted to the distribution at retail of alcoholic beverages. While my business calls upon these agencies are not numerous, I must confess that since the University of Virginia derives no small amount of its appropriation from the State general fund, and the Alcoholic Beverage Control Board on its side, contributes no small part of the revenue going into the general fund, I feel a certain amount of patriotism and enlightened self-interest in purchasing the healing and rejuvenating liquids so efficiently and profitably dispensed by our major state-trading organization. On this occasion my wife was having a dinner party, and I had been definitely instructed to bring home, among other potable items, some after-coffee liquors. One of my favorites happens to be Orange Curacao, which history will perhaps judge as the major and only important contribution of the people of the Dutch West Indies to modern civilization. Upon asking the genial bureaucrat, who is pleased to cater to my convivial requirements from time to time, if he had a flagon of Orange Curacao, he turned to his colleague who was busy stacking bottles on the shelves and inquired, in the curious argot that in my section of Virginia is fondly supposed to be the King's English, "Gawge, we got no Orange Kurso?" His fellow official examined a section of the shelves and replied, "Ain't none here, but I'll see of any come in this mawnin'." So he went to the back of the store and called to the porter checking the new shipment of wet-goods, "Sam, see if we got no Orange Kruso in this shipment." A few moments later an exasperated Negro stuck his head in the door and in a voice of deep disgust said, "Mr. Gawge, you knows puffickly well we don' sell no Orange Creosote in this here store." At this stage I settled, in self defense, for a bottle of Creme de Menthe, which fortunately did not have quite the interesting phonetic possibilities of Orange Curacao.

This problem of communications is vital within even the simplest administrative operation. In a large and far-flung organization it sometimes becomes one of the most crucial factors in administration. I should like to talk to you this morning about several aspects of the problem of communications. First, I should like to consider communication as a problem of words. I may say that I have promised my wife never to use the term 'semantics' again, which accounts for my regretful eschewal of this latest bit of professorial gobbledygook. Second, I think we may profitably devote some time to communications as a problem of flow. Third, we may look at communication as a problem of delegation, which, in the final analysis, I am inclined to think may be its most important aspect.

The environment of the Extension administrator, like that of the college professor, is a verbal one. In fact, as we grow older, talking seems to become more and more the simplest and easiest form of respiration

in both occupations. One of the things I find it difficult to understand about this Workshop, frankly, is how a group of administrators themselves in the habit of doing most of the fancy talking can resign themselves to a ten-day period in which to listen to a college professor on a busman's holiday. There is an element of masochism in this business that is somehow a little unnatural, and I have my fingers crossed against the day when some of my strong-armed and stronger-minded victims will rise in revolt, slap me into a chair, and take over the verbal outgiving. The higher an administrator goes in an organization the more exclusively does his environment become a verbal one, and in a group of dean-directors, directors, associate directors, and assistant directors, this fact also contributes to my feeling of general uneasiness and disquiet.

Here in this Workshop, and in our daily lives, we are all responding to words and other stimuli which purport to involve meaning. Our competence in dealing with our verbal environment is a large part of our success in handling the executive job. Since we have renounced brute force and awkwardness as the basis of the command function, we must acquire skill in using words that will appeal to the sentiments of our subordinates. We must constantly practice the art of persuasion. In dealing with those outside the organization we have a special problem of clear and tactful communication. Moreover, we must achieve finesse in interpreting and understanding what people are trying to say, since the administrative job deals predominantly with the interaction of human beings, and our data comes from what we hear as well as what we see and do. In short, words are about the most important single commodity in which the administrator deals. They deserve thoughtful attention.

Let us have a closer look at the sorts of jobs we attempt to make language do for us. First, words are used to refer to events and occurrences external to the speaker and listener, or to the author and reader. In this way words are used in some instances here at this Workshop, among people engaged in a discussion of matters of which they have first-hand and intuitive familiarity, as well as a common background of organized knowledge. The words we use refer to events, and relationships among events, external to us, to which we can check back in the event of misunderstanding or disagreement. The learned philosophers advise us that this is the logico-experimental use of language. As one of the principal dispensers of logico-experimental wordage during the past five days, I am prepared to admit that employing language in this context is extremely hard work -- for all of us.

On the other hand, if you gentlemen were a group of beautiful blondes, the job I would put my words to work on would be, I assure you, fundamentally different. In a social conversation, the philosophers tell us, words are used for emotive purposes, and what is primarily happening is an interaction of sentiments rather than anything very logical. One person is using words to express certain sentiments, to which the other responds with similar, or opposing, sentiments; or one person attempts to influence the other by using symbols that will have a desired reaction on the sentiments of the latter. Politicians do this too, and once in a

while a really ambidextrous fellow is able to combine both logico-experimental and emotive language. I recall some twenty years ago when I was boning up for my doctoral language examinations, I came across a book by Fontenelle, a seventeenth century French astronomer, called Entretiens sur la pluralite des Mondes. Like most books this work was a product not only of the author's peculiar genius but of the age in which he lived, and if I understand what I read about seventeenth century French history, the educated classes had two principal characteristics. The first, and I am inclined to think the more important, was a profound pre-occupation with the art of love, and the second was a very catholic curiosity about scientific discoveries and developments. Now Fontenelle wanted to write a book explaining the main facts of astronomy to his contemporaries, and he wanted his book to be read. With rare perspicacity and a completely accurate instinct for the interests of his countrymen, he imagines himself on a beautiful, clear and moderately warm evening in the garden of a fine old chateau, in the company of an indescribably lovely and not altogether unsusceptible lady. In such surroundings his thoughts not unnaturally turn to "gallantry" in its, shall we say, more exuberant manifestations, but the lady, with infinite grace, switches him over to natural science. "Not now," she says, "but tell me about the moon." So he tells her about the moon, and with equal tact comes back to the principal objective, and he is again detoured with inquiries about the earth, and then about the sun. Now this goes on for fully two hundred and fifty pages and at least thirty-nine constellations, with victory constantly coming nearer and nearer. The reader, meanwhile, is following breathlessly not knowing around the corner of which of the Pleiades Fontenelle eventually will accomplish his base design. As things turn out, he never does, but in the process of waiting around to see what happens one learns, inter alia, an awful lot about the Copernican astronomy.

There is a third function of language, which is exemplified best in the New Yorker stories, and now the movie, called "The Private Life of Walter Mitty." If you have not seen it, I will not spoil your enjoyment with a verbal preview. In this sense, we use language not for communication, but to satisfy our conscious and sub-conscious desires by revery, day-dreaming and air-castle-building, which occupy a good part of the waking time of even over-worked Extension administrators. I mention this third use of language because in some of the official communications I receive from time to time, it is evident that occasionally administrators get their day-dreaming and their logico-experimental use of language rather badly mixed up. It happens to others, too. I was grading final examination papers in one of my graduate courses at Columbia on the plane coming down, and at the end of a paper submitted by one of the smartest young men in the class I found the pledge written as follows: "On my honor I have neither given nor received aid on this examination nor have I seen others do so. Love and kisses, my darling Kitty." And my name ain't Kitty.

This fact that language has varied functions, and that except in unusual circumstances the several functions are not distinguished, least of all in the mind of the person using the language, creates grave problems of communication. It means that many of the statements we make and

the letters we write have little meaning apart from our immediate personal situation, and the same thing is true of the statements we hear and the letters we receive. Our problem would be greatly simplified, and the whole matter of communication enormously expedited if we labelled clearly what we are doing when we use language. If we were forced to preface our remarks or note at the top of our letters, "Now I am talking about events and relations among events in our common experience," "Now I am expressing my sentiments and attempting to influence your reactions to them," "Now I am building air castles," "Now I am trying to make my sentiments and prejudices sound like a logical argument," "Now you may think I am talking about that damned agronomist in the next office but really I am talking about the row I had with my bridge partner last night," there would be a lot less misunderstanding and difficulty, although the world would probably not be a happier place in which to live.

All this is designed to illustrate the fact that the interpretation of the language we use to other people, and that other people use to us, is a fairly complicated task. It does no good to pretend that the job is simple. Some professional groups--especially good trial lawyers and expert medical diagnosticians--develop an extraordinarily high degree of skill in the interpretive process, although few of them are sufficiently articulate outside their own narrow specialties to transmit what they have learned. Some people never learn even the rudiments, and among these, I regret to observe, are an unduly large number of my academic bretheren. Scientists and engineers also display a remarkable obtuseness in this regard. Administrators generally learn at least the A.B.C.'s, or stop being administrators.

When an administrator is confronted with a complex situation involving human interactions, his first object, since what people say constitutes a very large part of the data upon which he must rely in making his decision, is to elicit free expression, either in the form of a conversation or a letter. What he is seeking is a frank and uninhibited expression of sentiments and opinions. Because of this he clears the avenues of approach. If he is talking face to face, he listens. He does not interrupt. He does not give advice. He does not ask leading questions. He does not express or even permit himself to make moral judgments about what is being said. He does not get involved in arguments. If he is dealing with a written document he respects confidences. He does not make even tentative judgments based on penmanship, neatness of typing or quality of stationery. His main object is to see that the sentiments of the speaker or writer do not react upon his own sentiments.

This does not mean that his mind is a blank. What he is looking for in the conversation or the letter is a basing point upon which he may begin to organize his orientation to the person who is trying to communicate with him. Let us suppose that a prominent county farm leader comes or writes into the Extension Director's office and complains that the local 4-H Club Agent is a damned communist. The sophisticated administrator does not rush to the dictionary to look up the word "communist." He does not get warm under the collar and try to argue the speaker or writer out of his assertion. He does not assume that there is some

definite element in the character of the local 4-H Club Agent to which the word "communist" applies. He does not presume for a moment, that truth or falsity has even the slightest connection with the assertion. He knows that his communicant is expressing sentiments and feelings, and that these feelings are not words, although words are being used to express them. What must be ascertained is what the communicant is bringing to the situation in terms of hopes, fears and expectations, and what social demands the situation is imposing upon him. The administrator wants to know something about the background of his communicant, which has conditioned him to certain hopes, fears and expectations, so that he can see what sentiments of the communicant are being violated, disregarded or misunderstood by the local 4-H Club Agent. Moreover, the administrator is interested in knowing about the social demands of the situation, since he realizes that his communicant is not an isolated individual. His communicant is a member of the county agricultural community. He is a member of a smaller group of, let us say, specialty producers of apples or tobacco or rice. He is an officer of the special commodity producers' association. His fellow farmers respect him as an expert farmer in his specialty, and go to him for advice and assistance. The odds are about 10 percent that somewhere and somehow the 4-H Club Agent has aroused fears by broad statements regarding social policy and about 90 percent that he has sometime failed to accord due deference to the communicant's status in the community, and has disturbed him in his established and comfortable social environment. Clearly, the administrator must get past the words to the basic maladjustment before he is in a position to take action which will restore the disrupted social and administrative equilibrium.

The administrator not only listens to words but, as I have suggested earlier, he uses them in considerable quantity. Other people, both inside the Extension Service and out, are put in the position of understanding or misunderstanding what he is trying to say. Moreover, a good deal of what he has to communicate involves the feelings and sentiments of people. He is not always attempting to convey mere facts or purely logical propositions. I have never quite understood why administrators generally, and educational administrators in particular, seem to think it somehow indecent to communicate either with employees or public except on the basis of dull facts in their dullest possible presentation. I am not talking about the super-smart tricks which the advertising and propaganda boys have developed, but just the simple process of talking or writing for and in terms of the whole man, rather than the statistical repository or encyclopedic filing base which are apparently the terms in which administrators think of the recipients both of their official communiques and their ordinary correspondence. Administrators, if they are to make their meaning effective, must use words that not only present facts but also convey sentiments, and they might as well recognize the necessity and make sure that the sentiments are honestly and understandably communicated. Moreover, the persons and groups to which the words are addressed also have sentiments, and these sentiments are conditioned by their relationship to the Extension Service, by their age, their sex, and their personal situation or special interest. A communication, for example, that would have a great deal of meaning for

a group of district supervisors might have little or no significance for a local program committee or even a group of specialists at headquarters. The problem of fitting the communication to the people or groups for which it is intended is a crucial aspect of effective intellectual interchange, and is worthy of careful study and consideration.

I do not suggest that the extension administrator has anything to gain by making himself over in the mold of a political Fourth of July orator, or that he go around drooling, in the words of the immortal Bard, "sickly sentiment sullied o'er with the pale cast of thought." What is called for is a good deal simpler. It involves, first of all, a recognition of the fact that men are motivated by their feelings as well as their logic. Second, the variable factors in the personal and organizational situations of the people and groups with whom he must regularly communicate ought to be identified and held firmly in mind. Third, careful attention should be given to the words and phrases best adapted to the approach of these various people and groups. Fourth, he must understand that the invocation of emotive language as well as facts and statements that can be dealt with in terms that are primarily logical are complementary forces making, when ethically used, for clarity and honesty of statement as well as for the production of the cooperative reaction which he desires.

We come now to communication as a problem of flow. In order to achieve a secure and adaptable alignment with the people at the district and the county level, headquarters is under the constant and recurring necessity of explaining itself as fully as it is able. Effective downward communication is a factor of major importance in organizational unity and cohesion. It is also, I may observe, the hardest to organize and administer effectively. I have already pointed out some of the difficulties which inhere in communication as a basic matter of language. But top management has other difficulties and obstacles in making itself intelligible; fragmentary, overgeneralized and cryptic communication of policies and objectives by the director is not always due to carelessness or inept handling of the language problem. The policy or objective may be quite explicit in the minds of headquarters, and the management may be perfectly capable of clear and adequate communication, but still be reluctant to take the entire organization into its confidence. Matters to be communicated are not infrequently extremely delicate. Sometimes their full and complete communication may involve unripe admissions of internal failure or even premature notice of intentions of external aggression. Sometimes the whole thing must be handled by the restricted "family conference" technique, after the children are safely in bed.

Agencies as large in personnel and as far-flung in operations as the State extension organizations are especially vulnerable in matters such as this. The mere size of the organization makes leakage almost certain, and even if the confidential communication need go no further than the district supervisors, the number of people, including secretaries and clerks, privy to the matter makes discreet treatment problematical. How far can the director assume universal loyalty within the organization? To what extent can he take for granted sympathetic and con-

structive consideration in his attempts to discover workable solutions to complex and delicate matters, especially when explorations must be conducted in highly general terms? This, I believe, is one of the reasons that downward communication is sometimes reluctant and uninformative, withholding more than it conveys and perhaps in the long run confusing more than it clarifies. It throws into bold relief the importance of a high grade of organizational morale and identification of personal and organizational objectives, which would permit the director to speak in complete confidence, to encourage healthy and constructive argument and differences of opinion at every stage of policy formulation, and to rest assured that all this is politically and administratively feasible within the four walls of the institutional common allegiance. We have heard a lot in recent years about the dangers of bureaucracy - of the self-protective solidarities which develop in the public service. In my judgment, the major danger is not the development of the bureaucratic sense so much as the failure to lift the employee from excessive pre-occupation with his personal problems and ambition, or lack of ambition, to an identification of his personal interests with the larger organizational effort. Only when this is achieved does really efficient operation become possible. One of its important by-products is that it opens the gates for vastly more effective communication and understanding within the organization.

One of the curious consequences of weak and timid topside management is that it produces both too little and too much downward communication. Sometimes the quantity and quality of communication is completely negligible because the administrator is afraid to commit himself on anything and either unable to stimulate devotion and enthusiasm from the subordinate echelons or indifferent to the importance of organizational vitality. On the other hand, a weak and timid administrator will frequently issue a policy directive or an administrative order and then proceed to issue an interminable series of policy clarifications, amendments and additions, instructions, interpretive memoranda, etc., etc., after each person talks to him about his policy or his administrative program. The real economies of downward communication, the transmission of everything necessary and useful to the line, but no more, are usually realized only by a strong and confident administrator.

My very definite impression is that county agents suffer acutely from an excessive volume of downward communication. In part, this is a reflection of the general tendency in government which has apparently accompanied the expansion and proliferation of executive agencies. The contributions of the typewriter, ditto and nineograph processes have not been inconsiderable. Of course, a part of what is sent to the county agent is not meant to be read, it is to be scanned and filed against the day when he has a problem involving the subject matter of the communication. But with regard to the remainder, there seems to be a very uneven coverage of necessary and significant information. There are apparently no priorities, or if they exist they are so ill-defined that no real screening is accomplished, so that a sort of Gresham's law of communication comes to operate, the trivial and unimportant kills the

significant and essential, and the whole purpose is defeated. If the agent tries conscientiously to scan the scannable and read the significant, he never gets around to any consecutive thinking about his own job--indeed, I doubt whether he sometimes even gets around to doing his own job. More likely, of course, he reads only when he can find the time for it, and he never finds it. John J. Corson, who has probably studied more closely the problem of downward communication than anyone else, and who, as director of the Bureau of Survivors and Old Age Benefits in the Social Security Board did a better and more imaginative job of communication than I have seen elsewhere, tells us that top-level issuances usually enter into the thinking of the operating echelons very slowly and in a very uneven pattern. One of the principal reasons for this, I believe, is the volume of and lack of selectivity in the stuff that comes down.

The real tragedy of all this is that the preparation of the top-level issuances is a very solemn and self-conscious business, involving an enormous expenditure of time, money and worry. Moreover a good many top-level executives feel, after getting out an official communication to the operators, like the village blacksmith, that "something accomplished, something done, has earned a night's repose." It is no unimpressive experience to follow the process by which a communique from on high is processed, manufactured, finished, packaged and distributed. High-priced administrative assistants retire ceremoniously behind closed doors with a battery of secretaries, sweat copiously over the raw materials, and come out at midnight with a "preliminary tentative draft for confidential consideration" in eleven copies. For the next few days general staff, specialist staff, and top operating officials pore over the drafts, make copious marginal notes and queries, and even write explanatory supplementary memoranda. The draft then goes to conference, and busy and important officials spend hours and hours quarreling over grammar, punctuation and content. Finally the draft comes to the director's desk with a super-A-double-plus priority and he is twenty minutes late to an appointment with the president of the college while he reads the fourteen single-spaced pages and the five attached exhibits and signs it. The stencils go in and the typewriters begin to clatter, and at 9:30 p.m. the edition is put to bed, to turn up thirty-six hours later on the desk of a county agent who hasn't got time even to tear open the envelope. His girl puts it in the files and makes a mental note to tell him the general subject, but forgets all about it. If public officials exercised no more control over their procreative impulses than they do over their official epistolatory urges, this country would have a population density at least equal to that of Senor Perez-Garcia's Puerto Rico.

There is a great opportunity in most extension services for an imaginative communication's expert to devise methods for cutting down on the volume of this largely wasted effort. Next in virtue to deciding that the proposed communique is not really essential, however, is the drafting of necessary communications in understandable language. A great deal of the State extension service material I have read, especially the outgivings of the subject-matter specialist staff, reminds me more

than anything else of the place in the third volume of Gulliver's Travels where Gulliver, on his visit to the island of Laputa, is being measured for a new suit of clothes, and the tailor is taking his measurements by trigonometrical survey. There is such a thing as scientific excess. The Federal Department in some sectors is making remarkable progress in this matter, which the Cooperative Extension Service might find it profitable to emulate. One of the most productive devices so far discovered is the establishment of central issuance-control. While it involves adding a new general staff function, it pays its way if not financially at least in the staff time it saves in killing off proposals for unnecessary issuances and increasing the availability and usefulness of the communications issued by proper classification and identification by series and subject matter.

The flow of communication is fortunately rarely one-way. As Fritz Marx and Henry Reining put it, "Effective communication enunciates thought, and institutional thought travels increasingly on two-way avenues." Downward communication breaks through to the thoughts of the people at the operating level most effectively when the substance relates to their own thinking and they find their own ideas and beliefs reflected in it. Policy communication gains in force and efficiency in proportion as the operating echelons are enabled to participate in policy formulation. To a considerable degree the operating personnel, particularly the district people, always participate in the formulation of policy. The supervisor to a certain degree and the county agent to an even greater degree really make an enormous lot of policy in the process of translating general policy and strategy as outlined at the superior levels into tactics and operations in the field. In their reporting work, the agents and, in turn, the supervisors, point out deficiencies in the administrative approach, lack of realism in current policies and strategy, and developments at the field level which necessitate topside attention and require preparation of new or amendment of old instructions, and in so doing exercise a profound influence on the formulation of major policy. Even so, these techniques of assuring a two-way flow are sporadic and accidental. What is needed is purposeful and organized effort for continuous participation of the operating people in the development and refinement of organization policy.

Formal staff meetings, useful though they may be for many purposes, have not played a particularly effective role in this type of participation. The real benefits of continuous policy cooperation from the operating levels can apparently be best achieved by the habit of consultation, up-and-down and across-the-board, which only the director can drill into the consciousness of the people throughout the organization. What must be developed among the staff at all levels is the very-nearly instinctive impulse to consult, without regard to place in the hierarchy, the people in the organization who have something to contribute from their experience or their interests to the solution of a particular problem of policy. The supervisory echelons, moreover, have a special responsibility systematically to exchange experiences among themselves, and to create opportunities for the consultation of county personnel among each other, with the supervisors, and with the general and specialist staff from headquarters, with respect to policy problems in which they have experience and expertise.

I want to underscore the informal and non-institutional aspects of this operation for several reasons. First, the need for consultation arises in connection with particular problems and sometimes with respect to fairly specialized aspects of these problems. The people who have contributions to make to their solution will rarely be identical from one problem to the other, and there is no use wasting the time of over-worked personnel in listening to talk in which they are not interested and to which they cannot contribute. Second, the formal conference, especially the formal inter-level conference, is itself one of the major present-day hazards to effective communication. Next to coordinators, no other institution has declined more in either popular or official affection and esteem. The amount of time wasted in many agencies in footless gabfests among a group of people that should never have been assembled in the first place, that has no tangible problem with which to deal, and in any case presents a body of background and experience so heterodox and unrelated that it could not possibly deal with any matter offering the slightest complication, is one of the scandals of management, public and private, in our generation. What is wanted here is a habit of administrative thinking, and a pattern of administrative behavior, that functions intuitively as far as possible on a face-to-face basis. The institutionalization of channels and procedures is the last thing that will contribute to this objective.

It seems hardly necessary to point out that this two-way flow of communication and participation in policy matters can be brought about only if it is sincerely desired and intelligently elicited by top management. A weak or small-minded administrator, who is over-sensitive to criticism from within, will never instill such habits of consultation and cooperation, no matter how much he may officially extoll the virtues of cooperative thinking. Original ideas and helpful suggestions will not be forthcoming if the operating people know they will probably fall on fallow ground. An awful lot of administrators still harbor the outworn idea that their authority is compromised by extensive internal participation in policy thinking and formulation. It is high time they got wise to themselves.

We come at long last to communication as a problem of delegation. I refer here to the delegation of authority and responsibility to the district supervisors and, in turn, to the people in the counties. In the main, however, I am talking about the district supervisors, because the director has large discretion in the authority which he gives to or withholds from this level of the operating process, while if the county people are to operate at all the delegation of authority to them is to a considerable degree dictated by considerations external to the director's own volition.

The finale of line operations is always the report to headquarters that the job has been done - the mission accomplished. The line operator is the chosen instrument for accomplishing the objective, and this implies that he is to be given the tools to do the job. An important part of his tool kit is adequate authority to settle the details, and this involves considerable leeway of action. No elaborate and finespun communication from headquarters can ever substitute for his own foresight, experience,

and know-how. In short, at a certain stage of the process and for certain purposes the director should say: "From this point detailed communication with and direction of field operations in these determined sectors of our work are no longer feasible, because of the volume of executive decisions involved and the large variety of local conditions affecting their proper resolution. I will, therefore, subject to my general control, delegate my powers of direct supervision and decision to the following classes of line officials, and will deal with them in terms of general directives and instructions. They, in turn, will bear the responsibility for settling the details and executing the program."

This, mind you, is what the director should say. Actually, delegation of authority has been timid, grudging and fragmentary, and for this the directors are not altogether to blame. When trivial slips of distant and obscure subordinates can produce as much fuss and ~~foxore~~ in State legislatures, and in turn in college boards of trustees, and can discommodore college presidents as much as they frequently do, no director who respects his dignity and his slowly hardening arteries can be criticized for hugging control close to his bosom. Moreover, the need for protecting the service from spoils-minded politicians has by no means completely disappeared, and directors rightly feel that they are in a stronger position to resist these incursions than are the line officials who have to live in close contact and reasonably amicable relations with the boys of the court-house ring.

However, even where a fairly ample delegation of operating authority has been made, it is generally curtailed by requiring the submission of large categories of important decisions to headquarters for prior approval, all of which throws a terrific burden on administrative procedures and compromises the integrity and responsibility of the line official.

Most of these limitations are not actually necessary to the maintenance of the director's control, and a proper reporting procedure which would flash early danger signals both to the director and the operating official is much to be preferred to a cumbersome substitution of uninformed central decisions to at least informed, even if occasionally erratic, local determinations.

One of the reasons why the authority extended to line officials, and particularly district officials, has not greatly increased with time is the difficulty which the district people have had in organizing their own jobs. Like some directors, many of them have been more interested in organizing their shops than in organizing themselves. They tend to be characterized by a terrific preoccupation with small details--in the words of the poet, 'the petty done, the undone vast.' Now there is little connected with administration that it is safe to classify permanently as inconsequential and trivial, but the operating official needs an instinct for what is important and for what must be done immediately. The lack of this explains to a large degree why supervisors and agents throw themselves with such complete abandon into the mere busymaking activities of routine operations, and why they never have time for the pause that refreshes their administrative outlook--the period of contemplation and

reflection upon what they are doing, why they are doing it, and what significant elements in the situation need to be made known topside.

In yesterday's talk, and earlier in today's paper, I referred to the importance of the upward flow of reports and recommendations in the formulation of policy and in overall management. No matter how expert the planning and programming operations of the Extension Service, it avails nothing unless it holds up under the stress of operation. Without candid and realistic line reporting, top management operates in the dark. Line reporting literally keeps the director close to the soil. But reporting upward, like communicating downward, can get out of control. In some agencies everybody seems to need to know everything, and the proliferation of forms and reports destroys for all practical purposes the entire communications and intelligence function. Forms and procedures are introduced, their execution creates vested interests especially at the clerical and subordinate level, and they are continued indefinitely long after they have lost whatever significance they might once have had in the management of the organization. I am reminded of what was told me for a true story of the dinner honoring the faithful employee of a company manufacturing marine engines who was retiring after forty years in the mill division. All the company brass turned out for the occasion, speeches were made, toasts were drunk, and the inevitable engraved watch finally presented. After all the honorifics had been concluded the chief of engineering design, making talk with the retiring employee, asked him just what his job was in the mill. "Why I bore the hole for the pinion at the right-rear corner of the engine base," he replied. "My God!" said the engineer, "we redesigned the engine base and eliminated the need for that hole in 1910." "Well," said the employee, clutching his new watch tightly, "nobody ever told me to stop."

Planning, programming and scheduling must, of course, be buttressed and reinforced by reporting. But if the reports are to serve any significant managerial purpose the raw materials thrown up by reporting must be processed and converted into planning and control information - by consolidating, digesting, analyzing, abstracting, and highlighting of significant trends and conditions. Moreover, the reporting plan must be constructed with informational priorities receiving dominant consideration, and even after the plan is put in operation the reports must be subjected to periodic revaluation to ascertain whether the needs they were designed to meet still exist, whether the reports meet the needs which now exist, and how the reports are actually being used. The district official has a large responsibility in making the reporting system a vital and effective part of the total managerial process at operating, supervisory and top-management levels, and he should be given tools and authority to do the job.

A casual glance at the problem of communications management at the district level ought to indicate something of the complexity of the supervisor's responsibility, and top management's job in helping him to meet it. How is the supervisor to be kept informed of the flow of technical advice to the people in the counties? How can the people in the counties be given an adequate understanding and appreciation of the

total program of the Extension Service? How can the paratrooping specialists dropping into the district or county be kept from undermining the supervisor's and county agent's responsibility for all operations in their respective areas? How can county people be informed of headquarters decisions in advance of their appearance under Collegetown deadlines in the local papers? How can headquarters' advices to State and local officials, business interests and private citizens be kept in line with the advices of county agents and district supervisors to the same people? How can headquarters be kept informed of communications among the county agents in the several counties, and among the district supervisors?

As Donald Stone has put it: "Policy, programs and procedures must be developed and constantly revalued in terms of operating and administrative experience, and, with few exceptions, this experience is taking place in the field." The production of the processes of reporting and consultation by which knowledge of the results of this operating and administrative experience is made known to top management, and policy revaluations by top, middle and local management expedited and cleared, is one aspect of the important function of communication. Of equal, and perhaps greater, importance is communication by delegation--the devolution of programming and operating responsibility so that at each administrative level--State, district and local--the responsible officials will have functions appropriate to their assigned areas and interlocked with the functions of the other levels.

How much really useful information do you have constantly at hand about your organization? With good communications, would it not be possible for you to shift the center of gravity for both policy formulation and management considerably closer to the operational level? If you could move policy and management closer to operation, wouldn't you actually be able both to know more about and do more with the State Extension Service?

V. THE PUBLIC - A PART OF THE ORGANIZATION

One day last August Karl Knaus, C. C. Hearne and Dan Braum made a trip from Washington down to my shop at the University of Virginia to plan the subject matter of this series of essays. I must confess that when we finally decided upon a lecture to be entitled "The Public - A Part of the Organization" I was appalled with the idea of what someone less honorable, or perhaps I mean just less prosaic, than myself might have done with the topic. It literally cries for fervid oratory and the more spectacular sort of glittering generality. With practically no stretching at all I think I could get soldiers marching off to war, American motherhood, the Constitution, the great American way of life, white supremacy, and God knows what else under the big tent the title provides. Now I have no constitutional allergy to either fervid oratory or glittering generalities, but since I have avoided these pleasant pitfalls for the six talks so far, it seems definitely anticlimatic to fall from Grace here in the home stretch. In this seventh talk I will, therefore, try to keep it reasonably clean, moderately mundane, and passably realistic. I want to talk to you about three aspects of the public as a part of the organization: (1) the public as the consumer of extension services; (2) public participation in the administrative process; and (3) the administrator's responsibility for the public interest.

I have pointed out before, and will reiterate here, that the basic conception of the Extension Service involves activities that run far beyond mere compliance with statutory mandates and prescriptions; that the Extension Service is expected to anticipate and plan for the needs of the farm people of the United States; and that to the end of facilitating this function of anticipating and adapting the educational and developmental purposes of the service, large powers with respect to policy and programming are left with the States and the local communities. This responsibility predicates a deep interest on the part of the Extension Service in identifying and anticipating trends in public sentiment, and underlines the special necessity of keeping intimately in contact with the movement of public opinion. In part, this close contact with public sentiment is accomplished by the analysis and appraisal of the reports and intelligence which normally flow through the administrative channels as a result of field reports. On occasion, however, the Department of Agriculture has gone far beyond these resources, and has conducted scientific public opinion polls with its own investigators and analysis. Speakers at this Workshop have repeatedly referred to techniques of forecasting and evaluation involving the opinion poll, indicating that its incorporation into the standing operations of extension management may be a relatively near event. The Congress itself, by investigating the techniques of the American Institute of Public Opinion has extended at least semi-official recognition to this important new technique of taking the public pulse. Many public agencies, in fact, operating within a much smaller frame of reference, attempt systematically through interview and polling techniques similar to those of the famous Dr. Gallup to keep abreast of public opinion regarding their programs and activities. A number of municipalities have conducted very extensive scientific surveys of public reactions to local problems and policies, while universities and research institutes over the country are devoting increased attention to the techniques and scientific bases of opinion sampling. The careful

analysis of opinion as reflected in newspaper and trade-journal comment has long been a familiar occupation of Congressional and legislative secretaries, as well as the information and intelligence services of the executive departments of Federal, State and local governments. In its own way, public administration is close on the heels of business with its special sort of marketing surveys, the net results of which have been enormously to increase administrative sensitivity to the ebb and flow of opinion among its customers. In fact, preparations for the coming buyers' market seem pretty feverish in public and private circles alike.

All the administrative policies of some agencies, and many of the administrative policies of all agencies, however, touch only certain parts of the total citizenry. The activities of the Office of Indian Affairs, for example, have a fairly localized incidence and a correspondingly restricted popular interest. The citrus fruit growers of Santa Clara County, California, probably do not have much interest in or very intelligent opinions about work of the Department of Agriculture or the extension service in the Northern Great Plains wheat belt. Administrative agencies, therefore, tend to be more interested in the opinion of the special group or groups that are particularly affected by their operations. The formal advisory committee is one of the devices which has been used in many phases of public activity and by many agencies of Federal, State and local government for many years to keep in touch with this specialized type of opinion. I may remark parenthetically that several directors have raised this question of the functions, limitations, uses and dangers of such formal advisory committees from one angle or another in the course of "corridor conversations" during the past week. I suggest that if time permits the Committee on Organization Policies and Extension Service Administration give this problem at least a quick going over to determine whether the experience of the Workshop members with regard to formal general advisory committees is sufficiently matured to permit treatment of the matter in the committee report.

Probably the largest body of recent experience with respect to the use of these advisory committees is that of the War Production Board, which developed a very extensive committee system and promulgated a fairly detailed manual of principles and techniques to guide their operations. I am not sure that this experience is especially valuable for State extension administrators, and in any case nothing particularly new was brought forward by the WPB. The essence of the advisory committee system is that of establishing a procedure by which private groups directly affected by the programs of the agency, and such others as the agency may deem it advisable to include, may be consulted by the officials but will not be permitted to block action that is required by the public interest. I should point out that these advisory committees are set up for substantially different purposes from those of the State program planning committees which have been established to cooperate with the Extension Service in many states. The personnel is different at least in the fact that the general advisory committees rarely include agency officials or employees other than the head of the agency or his delegate, and it is also true that general advisory committees are consulted on problems of management, strategy and tactics to a degree that program planning groups rarely are. A number of problems are involved in the creation, use and control of such groups, of which I shall mention only a few. First, is the political situation sufficiently stable in the State to guarantee that the committee, and therefore the Extension Service, will not become the

battleground of conflicting farm groups? There are few States in which, at one time or another, the opposing interests of various sectors of the agricultural economy have not led to fairly bitter factional or inter-organizational strife. No Extension Service can afford to get caught in the middle in these fratricidal rows. Whoever wins, if the Extension Service is involved in the conflict, it always loses. Second, if the political factors are favorable, upon what basis should the committee be established? If the organizations themselves choose their delegates, there is small likelihood that an effective working group will result, or even that people competent to give the director the sort of advice he needs will be chosen. On the other hand, unless the members do represent the organizations, which means that the organizations must be accorded some sort of participation in their selection, they certainly cannot speak for the organizations, nor do they have any special status in consulting with the organizations, so that one of the major elements of liaison between the committee and the organizations is forfeited. Third, how can provision be made for the renewal of the committee so that it is kept in the mid-stream of agricultural life in the State? There are two aspects to this problem. First, control and influence in the farm organizations is in most States fairly fluid. If it does not change overnight, it is equally true that it is always in the process of shifting and the rate of what we might call "representational obsolescence" is much higher than actual turnover in the personnel of the organization's governing body. Second, most men, especially so called self-made practical men, are victims of what a friend of mine in the British civil service once called, in referring to his political chief, a "houseparty intelligence." When I pressed him for an explanation, he said, "Well, his advice and counsel are stimulating and constructive for about three days - about the length of a British long-weekend houseparty. After that he just goes on repeating himself over and over." When committees have met together and worked together for two or three years, they generally find themselves recurring with greater and greater frequency to their cogent views and penetrating recommendations of yesteryear and they too, in a very real sense, get to repeating themselves over and over. Furthermore, I believe that the element of continuity desirable in these consultative relationships is adequately supplied by the extension director and his supporting services of intelligence and information. My very definite conviction is that a strong one-term tradition, and not over a three or four-year term at that, is essential to the preservation of the opinion-reflecting and opinion-representing character of the committee. A final problem I should like to mention is that involved in securing the advice of the committee on problems of management, strategy and tactics without letting the committee meddle in the administration of the Extension Service. A vigorous instrumentality, as Dan Braun suggested Saturday, is by definition aggressive and somewhat predatory, and the natural tendency of a live and enthusiastic group of advisers is to take over the management. In my own experience, in the management of a couple of corporations for which I have worked it has been necessary more than once to push boards of directors over into their own back-yards, and out of my back-yard. It can sometimes be done very tactfully and smoothly, but sooner or later one draws an insensitive character who just has to be dealt a haymaker. When that time comes, the administrator needs to be very sure of his proxies.

In any case, it is important to remember that the relationship between the Extension Service and the groups which are affected by its programs will not depend primarily on an advisory committee, or even upon whether any formal consultative procedures are established. Of vastly larger significance is the adequacy of program, the effectiveness of operations, the cohesiveness of the special groups and their willingness to cooperate with the Extension Service. If these conditions are realized, the director may actually find himself in much closer relationship with the special interests than any advisory committee is likely ever to be.

The day-by-day administrative relationships of the organization provide the best and most reliable means for keeping in touch with opinion among the interests affected by the Extension Service program. The county agents, as they meet and work with the large numbers of farmers and farm people, and, to borrow a word from the Veterans' Administration, farm-connected people, are in the best position to get an idea of the opinions of those affected by the program with respect to the program, and of their general state of mind as well. The latter is sometimes a better lead to their long-run reactions than the specific opinion plucked out of their experience at a particular and probably not very representative point in time. Of course, if this is to do the director any good, his communications must be in satisfactory working order. Moreover, the stream of communication between the service and the public must flow both ways. In this respect the Extension Service is more fortunate than most other agencies which are almost continuously under fire, at the moment, from the Harness subcommittee of the House committee on executive expenditures, for spending money trying to explain their programs and operations to the public, and to secure reasonably intelligent public cooperation.

The enormous advances which have been made in reporting to the public by government agencies in the last fifteen or twenty years have in my judgment contributed as much as almost any other single factor to effective public participation in governmental affairs. The Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture has become a world-famous commentary on agricultural problems and developments in rural life. Extension Service reports have themselves come a long way. Municipal governments are doing a much better reporting job, and are even holding contests to see which municipality can produce the most attractive, interesting and informative annual report. Touching even more intimately the lives of the citizens are the reports and publications which enter into the daily economic activities of the country - such as the crop reporting and production estimates, the Census publications, the weather reports, the Federal Reserve Bulletin, Domestic Commerce, the Federal Home Loan Bank Review - to mention only a few. Many private persons, as well as organizations, could hardly stay in business without the information services regularly and faithfully provided by these, and the hundreds of other, useful and necessary reports on what the government is doing and what the problems and trends seem to be.

The work of the lowly government press agent in facilitating the process of reporting to the public should not be sold short, even when his real function is hidden behind the title of "editor" or "public relations assistant." As has been suggested before, he is frequently one of the closest and most useful advisers to the administrator on the general aspects of the agency program. While his approach to the problem of reporting tends to be dominated by considerations of what may be most

effectively popularized, since his success is measured by the degree to which he can elicit public approval and support for the agency and its officials, rather than what may best serve the general welfare, his influence is definitely in the direction of better public participation. My feeling is that on the whole the average government publicity man thinks of his job primarily in terms of promoting the interests of his current boss, but that may be due to the fact that he is by and large a fairly recent innovation and has not had time to absorb the institutional atmosphere of the public service. Certainly a man like Mike McDermott in the State Department has long since ceased to take a short-run and partial view of the personalities concerned with American foreign policy, and handles the press from the institutional rather than the personal standpoint.

Attention should also be directed to the substantial influence exerted on political and administrative policy of special advisory bodies and commissions of inquiry, many of which include both administrators and private citizens. The influence of the painstaking research and the intellectual authority of such groups should not be underestimated, despite the fact that their recommendations have no mandatory effects. Most of our national policy with respect to health, social welfare, and urban and rural housing, for example, have their roots in the work done by President Hoover's Committee on Social Trends and his Commission on Home Building and Home Ownership. Although killed by Congress in one of its less statesmanlike moments, national policy is still being strongly influenced by the reports of the National Resources Planning Board. The wholly private Commission on Inquiry on the Public Service, headed by President Coffman of Minnesota, which did its work more than a decade ago, has had a tremendous effect on thought and action in the general field of personnel policy and management. More recently, we have seen Dr. Vanneman Bush's report on Science: The Endless Frontier, undertaken on the President's instructions and executed with the help of a number of the country's leading scientists and educators, lay the foundations for a complete re-orientation of public policy and administrative approach to scientific research and development.

The important and fundamental fact is that basic changes in social or administrative policy are not normally matters that originate with legislative bodies or administrators working alone. They demand study, agreement and consensus among interested persons with special knowledge and experience concerning them, the support of private leaders and organizations, the concurrence of officials and legislators, and the promotion of support through many outlets of both mass and selective media of popular communication.

We come now to the second topic on the agenda of this talk, public participation in the administrative process. There are two factors which lead most of us astray when we start to think about our relations with government. First, we emphasize in our own minds the idea of government as coercion. Second, we think the government in stratified and jurisdictional terms, as though there were actually any basic distinctions to be made among local, State and national government. On the first point, I should like to observe that although implicit in our idea of sovereignty is the ultimate existence of the sanction of force, the vastly predominant part the relations of the individual to government, and the activity of government itself in terms of money and manpower, is completely outside the area of coercion. When the government delivers my mail, or removes

my garbage, or educates my children, it is hardly intruding into my private life. Even when it makes me drive to the right, or pays me to destroy my diseased cattle, or conserve the soil on my farm, it is primarily protecting my physical and economic interests, although the element of coercion, direct or indirect, is ultimately present in all three situations. The young lady who exclaimed happily as she bounced ecstatically on the red plush sofa in the White House reception room while waiting to see President Jackson, "Just imagine, all this belongs to me!" had in some ways a sounder conception of her relationship to government than a great many of us who think in perhaps less naive terms.

On the second point, I should like to challenge you to name a single important governmental activity that is not now administered as a vast cooperative undertaking among various levels of government and many times among public, semi-public and private agencies. When this challenge was first put to me a couple of years ago, I thought I had my interrogator cold when I suggested that the handling of foreign affairs and the work of the Post Office Department were integral and complete Federal official operations. However, if you happened to see the International Reception Center in New Orleans yesterday, you observed part of the evidence disproving my first suggestion, because in New Orleans the national government, the municipality, and a number of private organizations are cooperating in a truly remarkable undertaking which is rapidly becoming a highly important factor in our political, economic and cultural relations with Latin America. On the second point, my interrogator pointed out that the mandate in the United States Constitution was for the "establishment of post-offices and post-roads," the latter part of which has been left completely to the States and in many States in turn to the counties and townships. I need not suggest that the effective performance of a good part of the work of the Post Office would be utterly impossible without the State and locally maintained roads, and the privately owned and operated railroads over which the system operates. If you are inclined to regard national defense as an exclusively Federal function, you should recall the decisive influence of the state militia and the National Guard on the history of our military establishment and study the status of the National Guard in relation to the Department of National Defense. Moreover, since the real battleground of national defense has shifted to technological and industrial productive capacity, it may be pertinent to point out that the atom bomb was developed in the college and industrial laboratories of the country, and that a number of the more important contributions to the development of the bomb were made in non-governmental college laboratories.

The terrific concentration of public purpose and governmental authority on winning the last war produced, curiously enough, an enormously accelerated rate in the decentralization of both planning and operations. The selective service system, price control and rationing, civilian defense, emergency housing, and a dozen other activities just as important to winning the war as the actual training of combat troops were administered by local governments, and local committees of citizens set up by the State and local governments. Moreover, the locally administered aspects of certain programs, notably civilian defense, were conspicuously more successful at the local level than was the Washington end of the job. State and local agencies, including the Extension Service, not only were enlisted to carry out national policies and programs in some established and many new and novel ways, but they were not

infrequently in advance of federal agencies in the improvisation of techniques and in suggesting the reformulation of national policies. There is a terrific jolt in store for those who think war policies and programs were all dictated from the inner sanctums of the Pentagon and the White House when they have a close look at the participation of such organizations as the Council of State Governments, the United States Conference of Mayors, the American Municipal Association, and some of the other private associations of public officials and public authorities. This was a people's war, to borrow the moving phrase from "Mrs. Miniver," in more ways than one.

There is, and doubtless will long continue to be, a lot of language floating around about state's rights and local home rule, but deep down in our hearts I think we all know that we cannot live except in closer and closer inter-dependence. State and local agencies must live with, work with, influence and sometimes guide federal agencies if the job is to be done and the existence of the State and local agencies themselves justified. There is obviously a lot of work to be done in cleaning up sticky administrative relationships, in shaking down a lot of improvised administrative machinery, and perhaps doing some fairly fundamental functional surgery. But all this is not going to affect the basic pattern of cooperative government. The voters and politicians of this country realize, I believe, that most of our major problems cannot be dealt with except in terms of national policies and national programs. On the other hand, they are greatly impressed with the advantages inherent in national policies being carried out by State and local administrative agencies under their own legislative or other governing bodies. A State director or a county agent doing the job in the county has reason to sense a general responsibility to the public, and not merely a specialized one for a particular branch of administration to a distant superior. A county agricultural agent is bound, by the nature of his operating environment, to develop a fairly keen appreciation for the general welfare. Moreover, the system of interdependent governments functioning in cooperation means that the operator is in a much better position to have and to express an independent and critical judgment than if he were a local representative of a national agency. While doing his job he must keep his county commissioners, college president, or board of trustees, as the case may be, informed, and they, in turn, may influence both public opinion in the field and official opinion in Collogetown and Washington. Given half a chance he can keep the various programs stemming down from Washington in the field of his general interest from colliding and conflicting. If we make the best of the administrative possibilities inherent in the cooperative system, the people at the State, district and local level have a very significant opportunity to weave together the many strands of national policy much more effectively than could possibly be achieved in a system administered by separate functional officials all the way down the line.

Don Price sums up the basic virtues of the system of inter-governmental sharing in administration as follows:

"To see the benefits of a cooperative system it is not necessary to believe that local government is closer to the people, or more important to the people, or more democratic, than national government. None of the traditional local functions deals with as many people every day as

does the postal service; none affects the lives of citizens in ways as important as do international diplomacy and war.... Moreover, the business of the nation commands the citizen's first attention. The newspaper editor knows what people are interested in when he puts Washington affairs on the front page, and local council news, if any, inside with the hair- tonic ads.

"Yet there is a great deal to be said for arrangements under which public officials with a national point of view have to deal on a basis of mutual respect with officials representing a local point of view. Quite a few broad governmental programs may well be divided into specific functions, some under exclusive federal or local control and others under mixed control, but with representatives of all levels of government in a position to criticize independently the arrangements, and to speak up if they are disregarded. Even if the federal government is the exclusive source of funds and has the final word in any dispute, the participation of local agencies may be a source of initiative, of independent criticism, and of administrative personnel who have been trained in the exercise of political responsibility rather than as anonymous components of a larger organization."

We have talked a good deal about intergovernmental cooperation in administration. It is important to observe, however, that the cooperative system has been expanded to include not only Federal, State and local governments and public institutions, but to business and labor as well. Nobody supposes that either business or labor are sacrificing themselves out of public spirit. In the case of business, the developing view that private property is to a considerable degree a public trust, and perhaps the divorce between ownership and management in modern business and financial organization, have facilitated effective cooperation between business and government. But from whatever motives, business has been drawn into intimate participation in administrative responsibilities through the legislation it has sponsored, through regulations imposed upon it, through contractual arrangements with government, and through trade association activities. For example, the obligations of the governors of the New York Stock Exchange with respect to issues sold on its boards constitute, under the direction and control of the Securities and Exchange Commission, a very important phase of the administration of Federal legislation designed to protect investors. As another example, we may point to the fact that during the last war the government, instead of taking over the railroads as in 1917, gave to the Office of Defense Transportation the function of developing general policies, in integrating with war requirements, or transportation management, and the American Association of Railroads then served as the intermediary between O.D.T. and the individual railroads both on policy formulation and execution. So, we had the railways and their trade association cooperating with a regulatory agency of the government in formulating transportation policy, and executing the policy under the policing of their own organization. Now that is obviously not rugged individualism nor is it socialism, not even guild socialism. I don't know where the classical economists would pigeonhole the phenomenon, and don't especially care, but we must admit that it got the job done. For another example in Virginia the State

legislature recently taxed the apple producers, at their own request, to establish a fund for the improvement and better marketing of Virginia apples, to be administered jointly by the State and a committee of producers, and I am advised that arrangements of this sort are by no means uncommon throughout the country.

Marshall Dimock wrote a book called The Executive in Action a few years ago, based mainly on his experiences as director of the Recruitment and Manning Organization in the War Shipping Administration, and this book contains one of our best examples of government-labor cooperation, in which the ships operated for W.S.A. under a variety of contractual arrangements with private companies were manned by civilians referred to the companies by the seamen's unions, with most of the governmental functions previously exercised by the Federal Bureau of Navigation being taken over by the unions. There are a large number of similar examples of government-union sharing of administrative responsibility in the history of the war period.

A final species of government-private organization sharing may be identified in the arrangements made at the State and Federal level for the carrying out of certain regulatory and inspectional functions. For example, my automobile is inspected twice a year for conformity with mechanical requirements of the Virginia Division of Motor Vehicles. This inspection is made by the mechanics of the garage to which it is customarily taken for repairs and service, who are under contract to the State. While the system has produced some abuses, I doubt whether the solution will lie in the direction of eliminating the private mechanics, although more effective controls are undoubtedly indicated. At the Federal level the Civil Aeronautics Administration licenses private repair shops and private flying schools to inspect the maintenance of aircraft and certify them as airworthy, and to examine and recommend pilots for licensing - functions comparable to those which, in an earlier day were carried out for steamships by the government directly through the personnel of the Steamboat Inspection Service.

Frankly, I am extremely skeptical about many of the extensions of governmental power and resources under inadequate safeguards to private organizations or even to other governmental units. If governmental programs are to be carried out in a democratic manner, the main lines of policy should be kept in the hands of responsible officials. To let a local government spend State or Federal funds designated for a particular purpose for other ends, or to permit private interests to create monopolies under the guise of self-regulation is neither democracy nor decentralization. On the other hand, strong national or state government need not be feared as long as the citizens have many methods and routes of influencing policy development, and of opposing those that are dictated by special interests inimical to the general welfare.

We come now to the final phase of this morning's topic, the administrator's responsibility for the public interest. The enormous diffusion in political and administrative responsibility implicit in the widespread participation of semi-public and private organizations in government and management, and in the sharing of the administrative process among various governmental levels as well as with State and local semi-public and private groups, has not simplified either the problem of securing clear

policies and mandates or that of administering them. This is one of the places in public affairs where quantity has become quality, and when the very nature of the political and administrative process has been affected by the volume of the private and special interests to be consulted. The essential phenomenon is not new; indeed, the country was in the main settled originally and governed for quite a while by subsidized, private chartered companies of "gentlemen and adventurers" as the phrase goes, while the railroad and homestead land-grants on the one hand and the systems of tariffs and public improvements developed in the very infancy of the nation on the other give adequate evidence of the use, from the beginning of our history, of governmental power and authority for private benefit. The spoils system and contract jobbery themselves were no more than a reaffirmation, in their general acceptance by the American people for many decades, of our willingness to see the resources of government used for the buttressing of special privilege. In the course of the years, some forms of governmental-private relations have been suppressed, many abuses have been eliminated, and a much better general moral tone has in general been established. The fact that commodity speculation by officials in high places and other deviations from the strict path of rectitude, even though probably greatly magnified by political considerations, irritate the country to a degree that compels the offenders either to leave the government or to give notice of intention, is an indication of how far we have come in some respects in the last fifty years. On the other hand, the enormous increase in public-private interrelations during and since the last war has created a multitude of new and special problems. The fact that a large part of the job of war production was conducted in plants built by the government, that raw materials were assigned by priorities, that labor was provided by the Employment Service, that community facilities and housing itself were provided either by the national or the local government, and that financial arrangements were either on a cost plus fixed fee basis or subject to renegotiation, added a completely new dimension, due mainly to the volume, to the problem of public-private relationships.

The net result has been to relegate traditional doctrinaire approaches to the problem to a fairly futile status. Trust busting, preservation of competitive conditions as between producers, and as between management and labor, and most of the other essentially negative formulae of past decades have become completely inadequate. Least of all can we return to the notion of laissez faire, and say that government must not attempt to aid private interests, because private and public interests have in many cases become so completely identified that the distinction is only a formal one. The new problem is not one of preventing the rise of special privilege, or of destroying it when it occurs, but the infinitely more complex one of organizing the preeminent general public interest.

There is a nice theorem of jurisprudence which runs to the effect that all relevant provisions of the law existing at the time of the formation of a contract affecting the subject matter thereof are deemed to form a part of the contract. In much the same way national policies have come to form a fairly integral part of the policies of the larger private interests, and one must read the laws and administrative rulings promulgated in Washington side by side with the minutes of the board of directors of, let us say, the United States Steel Company, to understand the body of policy within which the operations of the company are conducted.

Not unnaturally, therefore, most national policies are worked out under tripartite auspices among congressional committees, administrative officials, and representatives of private interests or organizations. At the State level much the same sort of process occurs. While extension directors probably are not called upon to participate as constantly in policy development at the State level as are the officials of the Department in Washington, I know from my own experience that few major policies affecting the interests of Virginia farmers, whether the policies were being formulated in Washington or in Richmond, failed to go over the desk of the then extension director. At the state level, his counsel was always regarded as unofficial and confidential, and he was never quoted or otherwise involved in political controversy. At the same time, the administration felt that the extension director was probably in the best position of anyone available to give advice that was technically competent, socially informed (in the sense that his lines to the farmers were undoubtedly the best in the State), and completely unprejudiced. I assume that the same thing was true with regard to his congressional consultants. I assume, further, that his experience was not unusual, and that a draft bill is not an unfamiliar object to most of the members of this Workshop. On the other hand, it is also probable that while the volume of his policy consultation is with respect to agricultural affairs treated by State legislatures, the extension director rarely has direct administrative responsibilities for these matters. He is in the happy position, therefore, of advising on policies which he will not have subsequently to carry out.

Even so, he has a large role and an important place in the development of policy. He has, or is in a position to develop, impartial and scientific professional standards for the measurement of the effects of policies. His position for appraising, through his organization, the working of the policies in actual practice is unequalled. His experience in dealing with farm people and farm leaders is likely to temper enthusiasm for the theory of proposed legislation by a fairly realistic idea of what can and what cannot be done, and how long will be required for results to show. His position enables him to appreciate and effectively to present interests that are not powerful enough or rich enough to hire lobbyists, or cohesive enough to have developed coherent and convincing arguments for legislative consumption, and if his loyalty is confined to farm people, at least it includes all the farm people.

But his strengths are also his weaknesses. No matter how scientific his standards or objective his approach, the administrator, even the extension administrator, suffers from the danger of overemphasizing his own specialty. And the probability of error increases with the degree of his zealotry in behalf of the general welfare. This sometimes goes so far as to produce complete operating affiliations with legislators and special interest representatives who hold similar views to his own. Of course, one who lives by the sword of such personal political support generally dies by the same sword when the support fails. The tragedy is that when he dies politically his agency goes down with him, at least for a while.

Conformity with the general public interest is the fundamental prerequisite to the effective functioning of both administrative officials and private interest representatives in the formulation of public policy. More negative non-encroachment is not enough in this era; a positive and

active contribution to the general welfare is the price of survival. No single aggregation of interests - neither public administrators, farmers' groups, trade associations, labor union, nor any other pleaders for special privileges - can be permitted so completely to dominate any phase of our life that it is enabled to deal with the ultimate political authority - Congress, the State legislature, the county board, the city council - on terms of its own dictation.

This brings me to my final point. There can be entirely too much orderliness in administration and administrative arrangements. We are still in a transitional and highly experimental period in almost every phase of our national social, political and administrative life. This is a rich country, a big country, and a country whose obligations and world responsibilities, financial, productive, technical, intellectual and moral, verge on the unbelievable. We need experimentation in many phases of our cooperative efforts. I am glad that we have gone through the experiments of the last fifteen years in the handling of agricultural problems, and I think that from the standpoint of what it has added to our knowledge of where the control points in the agricultural economy are and how to manage them, even the failures have paid off. I am by no means certain that we have come to the time when all similar activities should be put together and everything neatly packaged up in square blocks in an organization chart. In the same way, if we had settled for any one of the divergent philosophies of housing rampant in the middle thirties - either that of the real estate boards, the building and loan associations, the lumber dealers, the welfare people, the slum clearers, the subsistence homesteaders, and a dozen others - we would by now be committed almost irreversibly to a program completely out of line with current housing facts. There are very strong reasons for believing that we froze the pattern of social security administration entirely too soon.

Much more important than the precise determination of notes and bounds and the orderly layout of arrangements with interest groups, citizens and other governmental units is the matter of unity of purpose. An organization is never just the sum of its parts. If its component elements in the formal organization, and among the public are pursuing inconsistent and conflicting purposes, its net effectiveness adds up to much less than the sum of the parts. If their objectives and operations are linked together and they move along in a genuine current of common purpose, the addition gives a lot more than the sum of the parts.

Some years ago I was in Europe on a job for Louis Brownlow, involving the development of cooperative operations of several international organizations in which the United States participated, and which had been having certain jurisdictional difficulties. In the course of the mission I had been extremely fortunate in working out mutually acceptable arrangements with regard to assignment of personnel, pooling of funds, maintenance of common facilities, common housing, etc., etc. All of these arrangements had been embodied in duly approved and initialed organization charts, budget agreements, memoranda of agreement, contracts, letters of approval of the governing boards and other dignitaries, etc., all elegantly typed, assembled and bound. Upon Mr. Brownlow's arrival in London I rushed over from the Continent to meet him and submitted my beautiful document with a profound sense of accomplishment and self-satisfaction. He glanced at

it briefly, laid it aside, smiled gently, and said: "Now tell me about the moral budget and the moral organization chart."

I suggest that the answers to this whole series of problems of cooperative government, public participation, and the safeguarding of the general welfare can be found in the moral budget and the moral organization chart, and nowhere else.

VI. THE SOURCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL POWER

The problem of maintaining vitality and drive in an organization may be stated with great simplicity: it is that of getting the agency in the groove and preventing the groove from becoming a rut. The simplicity of the problem ends with its statement, and from here on out the actual job of managing an instrumentality such as the Extension Service so that it functions with a maximum of efficiency and still does not wear down the groove until it gets deep into the rut of inwardness, complacency and self-satisfaction, and slowly grinds to a halt, offers a challenge of profound complexity and continuing difficulty.

Analogies are always dangerous, and nowhere more so than in the field of administration. At the same time there is a useful comparison to be drawn between biological and institutional life. A young organization is not unusually the epitome of awkwardness. It can be depended upon to spill the beans, drop the egg basket, and conduct itself generally in a manner calculated to menace all the pleasant and agreeable working arrangements common to adult and elderly social organisms. As it matures and its component parts grow to their proper proportions and adjust and accustom themselves to coordinated action, it achieves large potentialities for administrative effectiveness, and under competent leadership and direction may actually become a vital arm of social policy. Unlike biological organisms, institutions can avoid the final stage of slow-down and ultimate senility, but few of them do. Our essential problem in this discussion is to consider the techniques by which our organizations may be brought through the adolescent awkward stage as quickly and harmlessly as possible, managed so as to generate the maximum power and drive during adulthood, and operated so as to forestall as far as possible the onset of institutional old age and senility.

A groove and a rut are not the same thing, and if a rut is just a deep groove it is also true that the difference in depth produces a profound difference in quality and social utility. An organization must have reasonably well established and adequately defined methods of doing business, and a fairly extensive body of agreed procedure and routine. But it cannot under any circumstances afford to lose its flexibility and capacity to respond to human needs, desires and expectations. In short, it permits at its peril the groove of routine to become so deep that it is unable to disregard established procedures and operating methods, and to get out of the groove completely if necessary, in responding to the needs of those it serves. That this does happen I am fully aware. Some organizations, in fact, wear the rut so deep that far from being able ever to get out of it, they can't even see out of it, and consequently never know about the eventual uselessness and futility of their work.

Frankly, we do not know too much about what causes institutions to become inflexible and unadaptable. Size seems to be a contributing factor, although some very large organizations have successfully avoided it. I am inclined to think that the Department of Agriculture both in Washington and in the area of what we called yesterday "cooperative government" has been more successful than most of the Federal establishments in this respect, although there are undoubtedly sections of the Department which exhibit some of the symptoms of superannuation. Moreover, Agriculture,

as I have suggested before, is not a department but an empire, with many substantially self-governing dominions in which the thread of unity is preserved by the common purpose and philosophy plus the subtle penetrations of Bill Jump. One Secretary of Agriculture summed the thing up informally in these words: "Hell! I haven't got any more control over the Weather Bureau than the Weather Bureau has over the weather." The nature of the task seems to be another determinant in the predisposition to premature senility. Large uni-purpose and especially uni-process organizations exhibit a special susceptibility, and I am inclined to think that the generally unimaginative character of public budgeting which has bedeviled some Federal establishments and a great many State and local governments has been due to our erroneous conception of the budgetary process as a caudal appendage of accounting, and to the fact that we have permitted it to fall into the hands of personnel immured in the routine of government book-keeping. Routine, we know, makes thinking unnecessary and then eventually impossible. Perhaps the greatest influence making for institutional senility is age; organizations get old because the people at the top get old and do not get out in time, and I am not necessarily talking about physiological age. I know more than one fairly young administrator who is pushing seventy, and a lot of semi-senile oldsters of forty-five. The aging comes in the quality of the spirit and the mental outlook.

But these are speculations and sidewalk observations. They have no scientific validity or usefulness except as hypotheses. The symptoms are fairly definite, however, and seem to come to light in the exhibition of advanced tendencies toward hierarchy, subdivision, specialization, routine and professionalization. Thus institutions, like biological organisms, apparently die from the same thing that makes them live. This is the central dilemma which runs through the whole of institutional life and which constitutes the basic problem of organizational vitality. We have discussed already in this Workshop the importance of clean administrative structure and the principles of effective administrative organization. But administrative structure and organization that is permitted to become static and that is not ruthlessly re-examined in the light of program and objectives has already put in motion forces making for inflexibility and stagnation. I am more than a little distressed, in fact, at the excessive number of organization charts in evidence here, and while I am prepared to admit that they serve a useful purpose if used as a table of contents is used in a book, for example, without supposing that they reveal anything very important about the way the organization operates, I have great sympathy for the aversion of my friend Louis Brownlow to the deceptive simplicity which they impart to discussions of this infinitely complex problem of administrative structure.

We have talked at length - perhaps too much - about planning and programming, and I have tried to emphasize the importance of well-defined objectives in liberating organizational energies. It is true that specific and well-marked goals enable the agency to concentrate its firepower on definite targets, but they also narrow its vision and impair its broad orientation. It is also true that the programming methods of the extension service, which are built upon a very solid substructure of lay leadership and local participation tend to overcome many of the narrowing influences implicit in self-contained planning procedures,

but it has been impossible not to observe even here that trends toward a narrowing and exclusive outlook toward objectives are in evidence in some quarters of the service.

The problems of organizational and functional levels as among the central office, the district supervisors, and the county extension personnel - the thing we call hierarchy - has been treated in the course of our discussions, and the importance of unified and definite lines of command to the orderly transaction of extension service business has been clearly demonstrated. Yet the establishment of strict hierarchy is itself a step toward the atrophy of intellectual responsibility. A chain of command is a poor substitute for a line of reasoning.

We are agreed, I believe, that the Extension Service must have certain definite and established rules of procedure to assure consistent and orderly operation, and to provide the necessary interflow of communication among the various constituent units of the organization. Yet rules of procedure, like hierarchy, tend to drive out the good coin of common sense and human sympathy and substitute the sterile lure of mere uncritical conformity. Moreover, rules beget rules, just as hierarchy begets additional layers of supervision and command, and the incessant proliferation of both hierarchy and procedures stultifies and atrophies organizational vitality.

The problem presented by the high degree of specialization in the extension service has been commented upon at length and from a number of angles. I have said before, and I say again, that the insolence of professionalism is no mere figure of speech. It confers an expertise and brings qualities of technical proficiency to the service of the rural people that could be secured in no other way, but we have seen at every hand the impulses which it generates toward inward concentration on problems of personal scientific interest, and relative unresponsiveness to the public service implications of professional work.

We have talked a good deal during the Workshop about the general staff, and have examined with some care its role in organization management. None of us would deny the constructive work which can be done by competent budget, personnel, programming and other general staff. On the other hand the natural and inevitable tendencies of staff agencies to interject themselves into operations, and to obscure and complicate the relationships between the head of the agency and the responsible line officials, contribute directly to the destruction of initiative and the suppression of the organizational clan vital.

So we might continue indefinitely, but examples need not be multiplied. If the extension service ever becomes inflexible and unimaginative, if it tends toward dead uniformity in its approaches to human problems, if it entangles itself in its own maze of procedures and red tape, if it develops a stratified and unadaptable administrative outlook, if it becomes tinid and unresponsive - in short, if it begins to display the unmistakable symptoms of an organism that has passed its prime and is on the down-grade, the answer will be found pretty largely in the fact that those responsible for its administration - the directors and the superior administrative echelons - have permitted their instincts for order, precision, regularity, certainty, and the uneventful life to

overreach themselves and destroy the very thing they are seeking to safeguard and preserve.

What to do about it? Having admitted in the fourth paragraph of this essay that nobody knows very much about the problems of organizational pathology, I see no reason for any hesitancy at this time in prescribing for it. This is one of the very practical advantages of being an expert, and the fact that I am, as the phrase goes, "a long way from home" also helps.

My proposed therapy involves an attack on the problem in three sectors: (1) improving the structure to get the line official in a position to operate effectively; (2) rethinking the directorial function in terms emphasizing leadership rather than mere control; (3) building the service morale.

I suggested in my talk on communications that one of the basic reasons for, and one of the important techniques of securing, the effective flow of intelligence throughout the organization was to shift planning and operating responsibility toward the grass roots. I return now to this point from another angle, the importance of devolving adequate power and autonomy upon operating officials to permit them to function efficiently in carrying out their program as a matter of maintaining organizational vitality.

The line operator is the forgotten man of American public administration, despite the fact that in the conduct of line business his responsibility is practically all-inclusive. In the name of good management, headquarters has sometimes so tied his hands and restricted his movement that everybody in the organization is much more free to operate than the operator. He does not only not choose his subordinates, but they are not really his subordinates. Sometimes he exercises a nebulous responsibility for the administrative aspects of their work with no corresponding authority, and in many cases there is not even the slightest pretension of a unified service at the county level, since the supervisory lines of his co-workers run directly to higher echelons in the service. In fact, in many cases the lines of supervision never merge except in a highly theoretical way in the person of the director himself. In his control of housekeeping activities at the local level he sometimes is obliged to operate under systems and controls designed primarily for agencies located on the college campus, with no allowances made for the administrative effects of physical separation by many hundreds of miles. On the other hand, some county agents exercise surprisingly extensive powers - perhaps too extensive - with respect to housekeeping operations.

I have the very definite impression that American public administration, including extension administration, is top heavy from the standpoint of central control. There is too little authority for the amount of responsibility in the field. The operator is too often left to sweat it out under either prohibitions, or inadequate authorizations, or even worse, uncontrolled and unintegrated specialist supervision.

There is nothing in the laws, rules or regulations that I can find which compels the service to conduct its field work in this manner. I am fully aware of the political problems which make a director hesitate to turn over substantial amounts of his authority, even on loan, to a

line official, but surely there are in every State service some county agents, and in some services probably a good many, to whom at least experimental delegations of power and authority might be made to test the practical feasibility of administrative decentralization. Since this is true, I am led to the conclusion that directors fail to delegate either because they do not understand the function of administrative leadership or because they are temperamentally unable to delegate. The functions of administrative leadership are not hard to learn, but the neuroses which prevent delegation are something else.

Some men are apparently so constituted that they are unable to let go of any detail of their job. As a result, they try to do all the work of managing the organization themselves, which in a modern extension service is impossible, and end up as their own chief clerks, with the organization running itself after a fashion. Perhaps they are perfectionists, and feel that they alone can do the job right. Perhaps they are just old maids, who like to work at crossing all the t's and dotting all the i's. Perhaps they lack self confidence, and fear that they will make mistakes in delegation, that someone will try to reduce their power, that they will be subjected to embarrassment. Perhaps they have been burned once or twice by misplaced confidences, and wrapping themselves tightly in the cloaks of their authority have sworn a solemn oath to trust no man henceforth. But to serve as leader of an organization an executive must be willing to place confidence in his subordinates again and again, even when inadequately exercised; a neurosis is a luxury he cannot afford. A misanthrope is by definition disqualified for executive leadership.

Management is no bed of roses. Even the perfectly balanced and normal executive will encounter discouraging and disheartening experiences in the abuse of confidence. He will have a hard time hanging on to his faith in human nature. But if he is to exercise his most important function - that of leading the organization - he must delegate, and delegate extensively. The really effective administrator is largely a promoter and developer, who is constantly giving those in his organization jobs to do that are a little beyond their previous experience and demonstrated capacity, so that they are always increasing their capacities. Good men will not remain content in situations they have completely mastered. They must either be promoted, or their jobs expanded to call forth their full abilities, or they will leave the organization. I should like to reiterate in the strongest possible terms a statement I have made before to this group - the most important work an executive does is that of teaching, by which I mean assisting the personalities under his direction to expand and realize their potentialities.

I do not wish to overemphasize the temperamental aspect of the problem. Actually, many executives could readily learn to delegate if they were convinced that it were an advisable and necessary move. Few administrators have had occasion to rethink their jobs in the fundamental terms which would lead to consideration of the maximum possibilities of delegation. They have been fairly well occupied in adapting themselves, sometimes rather painfully, to their present administrative environment, and have never gotten around to challenging the environment itself. The problem arises only when the administrator is in a position

to take a long view of the content of the organization job, of his relationship to the long term job, and how he can best adapt both the organization and himself to facilitating the administrative process. He is no more likely of his own volition to sit down and analyze in perspective the problem of delegating his authority than he is to analyze dispassionately his relationships with his wife and his children. In fact, the relationship is often much the same from a qualitative standpoint.

The possibility of the misuse of delegated authority is undoubtedly a deterrent to many administrators. This is an admitted danger, but it generally results from a condition in which subordinates have been unduly suppressed and consequently do not know what to do with authority when they get it. A subordinate accustomed to the exercise of authority, even limited authority, if he trusts and is trusted by his chief, is not likely to seek self-aggrandizement if the authority is extended. In any case it can, and should, be a gradual process. Of course, almost any organization has its quota of self-seekers who cannot be trusted to exercise authority for the good of the program, but who always attempt to pervert it to serve their personal ambitions. Few directors have failed to spot these individuals long since, or are likely to entrust them with authority of any sort. Delegation can normally take place only where there is mutual trust and confidence, and a fair degree of mutual knowledge. The main difficulty is in knowing exactly what type and how much authority to delegate. The matching of the authority to the responsibility imposed is a matter of considerable difficulty, especially when an attempt, necessarily experimental, to decentralize the organization is taking place. As I have suggested before, one of the most frequent mistakes is that of underestimating the powers and authorities which will be required effectively to meet the responsibility, and this failure sometimes results in ineffective performance, which is then assumed to be due to the defect of the delegative principle, but is actually only an indication of the over-present dangers of inadequate and incomplete delegation.

Somebody in this group last week asked me just how this business of delegation was accomplished. I have been thinking the matter over, and would like to read to you the best and clearest exposition of the principles and practice of delegation that has ever been written:

"For the kingdom of heaven is as a man travelling into a far country, who called his own servants and delivered unto them his goods. And unto one he gave five talents, unto another two, and to another one; to every man according to his several ability; and straightway took his journey. Then he that had received the five talents went and traded with the same, and made them other five talents. And likewise he that had received two, he also gained other two. But he that had received one went and digged in the earth, and hid his Lord's money. After a long time the Lord of those servants cometh, and reckoneth with them. And so he that had received five talents came and brought other five talents, saying, Lord, thou deliverdest unto me five talents; behold, I have gained beside them five talents more. His Lord said unto him, 'Well done, thou good and faithful servant: thou hast been faithful over a few things, I will make thee ruler over many things: enter into the joy of thy Lord.' He also came that

had received two talents and said, "Lord, thou deliverdest unto me two talents: behold, I have gained two other talents beside them." His Lord said unto him, "Well done, thou good and faithful servant; thou hast been faithful over a few things, I will make thee ruler over many things: enter thou into the joy of thy Lord." Then he which had received the one talent came and said, "Lord, I knew thee that thou art an hard man, reaping where thou hast not sown and gathering where thou hast not strewed: and I was afraid, and went and hid thy talent in the earth: lo, there thou hast that is thine." His Lord answered and said unto him, "Thou wicked and slothful servant, thou knewest that I reap where I sowed not, and gather where I have not strewed: Thou oughtest therefore to have put my money to the exchangers, and then at my coming I should have received mine own with usury." Take therefore the talent from him, and give it unto him which hath ten talents. For unto every one that hath shall be given, and he shall have abundance: but from him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath. And cast ye the unprofitable servant into outer darkness: there shall be weeping and gnashing of teeth." (St. Matthew 25, 14-30)

We come now to the second phase of the topic for this morning, the director as leader of the organization. I wish to emphasize the fact that the director has, of course, the ultimate responsibility for the control of his organization. He cannot divest himself of the responsibility, because he is ultimately answerable for everything the organization does or does not do. The question is not whether he shall control or not, but whether that control shall be exercised as a positive and dynamic function of leadership, involving the delegation of large responsibilities to his operating officials and staff associates, or as a negative function of operating pre-audit, with the director spending his time sitting on the lid and trying to make sure that no mistakes occur. If his purpose is to maintain the organization as a vital spearhead of agricultural leadership in the State, he has little choice. If he does not lead the organization, nobody else will, and if the organization is not led, it will never accomplish very much in guiding and shaping agricultural development.

The first thing a director who wants to lead his organization ought to realize is that he must operate at the directorial level. He cannot make large numbers of petty decisions, he cannot allow himself to be inundated by the enormous volume of small intra-organizational matters which can and should be settled by the lower echelons. Above all, he cannot permit himself to be drawn into the general staff work except at the higher control points. There is an awful lot of budget, personnel and programming work that is related to organization management and looks like high-level stuff, but the director should try to stay out of it until the work of his staff people reaches the point where he can deal with it on the basis of policy and principle.

Of equal importance in effective leadership is the establishment and maintenance of working relationships within the service which will assure the effective contribution of all parts of the agency to the solution of the problems with which it is confronted. The director has a particularly important function to perform in promoting horizontal clearance and coordination, as contrasted with vertical flow of

communication and coordinative activities through the established hierarchy of the service. This is the part of the infinitely complex job of coordination that no other person in the service can perform, but it must be carried out and it must actually coordinate if an institutional product is to be achieved.

The unification of the administrative structure so that prompt decision and vigorous action may be secured is essential to the exercise of effective leadership. The director should not tolerate the anomalous situation existing in many states in which certain lines of authority running up from a fragmentized organization in the counties through completely separate channels finally converge on his desk. There should be a definite line of authority reaching from the director out to the assistant county agent in the farthest county of the state.

The director should have a realistic sense of decentralization and delegation, and should attempt to make certain that to a maximum possible degree authority is exercised and decisions are made as close to the level of operations as the requirements of organizational unity permit. This cannot be done as long as the upper echelons are cluttered up with indiscriminate mixtures of administrative and technical supervision running from quasi-independent teaching department heads or other non-integrated functionaries to the field. Nor can it be accomplished until the relationships of the specialist and administrative staff are worked into an effective pattern of operation.

Organizational leadership demands much from the director in terms of promoting democratic agricultural administration - in converting acquiescence into enthusiasm, in stimulating the free flow of ideas in all directions throughout the service, and in other ways promoting the corporate consciousness and institutional pride of the service.

Extension directors might profit considerably, I believe, by occasionally measuring themselves against some of the descriptions of the qualities needed in top management. One of the best of these is contained in Paul Appleby's book, Big Democracy. I should like to leave it with you as a sort of looking-glass into which you might glance now and then to see how much you are coming to look like the leader of a vital and dynamic organization. He says:

"The qualities include, perhaps first, an ability something like that required for higher mathematics. Trigonometry is no less practical and precise than arithmetic. It comprehends arithmetic, but is a way of relating and simplifying the handling of relationships between various arithmetical calculations. What is needed is the ability to handle relationships in their larger and broader terms - the quality of philosophy. This means a capacity to see public policy in tens of thousands of different actions and to relate these actions to each other in terms of public and governmental interests. Efficient 'operators' we have in great numbers. They are capable of serving well on the higher levels of government management only if they have this quality of philosophy.

"The kind of philosophy is, of course, important. A philosophy of absolutes and cold logic, a philosophy technical and rigid, would be ruinous. A sound political philosophy must comprehend

people's spirits and emotions as well as their reasoned opinions; it must embody the logic of events and sentiments, and not merely the logic of statistics.

"The second quality needed by the top executive is 'governmental sense,' the ingrained disposition to put the public interest first and thus to recognize the great, essential and pervasive difference that distinguishes public administration from the management of private enterprise.

"Related to governmental sense is a third quality of public-relations or political sense. This involves, on the one hand, an appreciation of the necessity for government officials and governmental action to be exposed to the citizens and the public affected by them and, on the other, an ability to anticipate probable popular reaction and make allowance for it. It also includes the capacity to act swiftly in introducing minor administrative adjustments when such action will relieve public irritation and the ability to sense major political shifts in the early stages of their development and gradually to modify the program of the agency accordingly. No matter how elevated they may be, however, administrators can never have the fullness of wisdom. Fortunately, they need not have it. Events and national sentiments will make the bigger and the ultimate decisions. Executives and administrative experts, working together, simply give form to specific programs and mechanisms within the framework of larger national movements. The capacity to sense the coming of these movements is political sense at its highest level.

"Ability to be governmental enough to discern the (public) interest and to insist on programs and procedures so sound that they will be as unyielding rock on which the waves of special interest may break their force in vain; ability to be political enough to seek those concessions which are the needed refinements of the process of making government action equitable and smooth; ability to be political enough to read and respond to the messages of public currents; and ability to use administrators who can organize and relate agencies so that they produce organized, integrated action - this is the combination of abilities required for the . . . top people in the great agencies of government."

The concluding phase of our topic deals with building the service morale. Leonard White identifies the term in the following words:

"Morale is both an index of a sound employment situation and a positive means of building an efficient organization. It reflects a social-psychological situation, a state of mind in which men and women voluntarily seek to develop and apply their full powers to the task upon which they are engaged, by reason of the intellectual or moral satisfaction which they derive from their own self-realization, their achievements in their chosen field, and their pride in the service."

While it is relatively easy to discern the presence or absence of morale, the definition of its component elements is a good deal less facile. Researchers and commentators have, however, offered a few generalizations which are useful for discussion. The first is that the

group-climate must offer opportunity for individual self-expression by the members of the group. The second is that the cooperative context must furnish outlets for the individual's pride in his own workmanship. A third is that members must accent the values and purposes of the group as their own. These are what might be called the individualistic bases of morale. But the group has its own collective individuality and vitality, which are derived from certain bases. Perhaps the most important is the personal opportunity for creative participation in the formulation and pursuit of widely shared group objectives. Not only is the individual related to the group, therefore, but the group is related to the larger community.

The highest type of morale has a dominantly intellectual quality, as well as strong emotional overtones. Its intellectual quality is derived from its emphasis upon information, understanding and communication in the broadest sense, which are based in turn on genuine participation in the thinking, planning, deciding and evaluating processes in the institutional context of the group work.

Morale can be built, and in many respects the Extension Service is in a position to assume national leadership in the morale building process. Its basic programming processes by definition involve virtually all the members of the organization, in terms which emphasize not only their membership in the group that is the personnel of the service, but relate this group closely to that larger agricultural community of the State with which the loyalties of the staff may be presumed to be most closely allied. The essential conditions for the systematic building of service morale are in large part, therefore, already at hand. One of the prominent devices in the methodology of morale is that by which the concept of the "team" is being substituted for some of the more enervating rigidities of the idea of hierarchy. And one of the techniques by which substance is given to the "team" concept is precisely the expansion of the forms and content of organizational communication, and the emphasizing of the multi-directional character of intelligence flow in modern administrative organization. Traditional staff indoctrination is thus transmuted into continuing group consultation, while the harsh and naked lines of authoritarian command become the channels by which the group with management works out, by planning and experimentation, group objectives and standards of administrative performance. Even staff meetings which in the past have destroyed as much morale as they engendered become dynamic factors in the morale building program. In short, most of the improvements which the director needs better to fulfill his managerial responsibilities also contribute significantly to the building of morale through the development of the "team" conception of staff operations.

Of equal importance in the methodology of morale building is the development of the function of leadership at the intermediate and lower operating levels, as well as at the directorial level, in the process of substituting democratic management for authoritarian command. These methods identify and emphasize the subtle but potent function of leadership among the official personnel in all its various forms and several grades of responsibility at headquarters, at the district level, and in the counties. The requirements of good management again coincide with the techniques of morale building, through which the vital forces of consent and self-realization are being built as worthier structures upon the traditional pattern of authority and command.

THE JOBS OF EXTENSION

W. C. Coffey

The basic job of agricultural Cooperative Extension is education. Primarily its job is directed to rural people and the major part of its thinking and effort revolve around the American farm and the American farm home. In scope, however, it covers practically all activities peculiar to rural life, and in serving rural people its purpose is to contribute also to the general welfare.

Repeatedly it has been stated that the purpose of Cooperative Extension is to help rural people help themselves in achieving certain desired ends as economic security, opportunity for adequate and satisfying expression of human personality, understanding of their proper role in society and a happy enjoyable life. Clearly ends so sweeping and inclusive cannot be attained without the development of the people who desire to achieve them, and rightly this is given as one of the fundamental purposes of Cooperative Extension. Chiefly through such development we can expect rural people to make their maximum contribution to the national welfare. We here refer to the national welfare not only as it relates to such mundane matters as supplying food, fiber and shelter but also as it relates to the ideologies which undergird our form of democratic government. We have in mind a national welfare which insures to all, including the farmer and the farm homemaker, the right and privilege to engage in free enterprise and to enjoy in fair measure, such improvements as may be made through individual desire and effort in the light of advancing knowledge. Without this greater end in view and without a program addressed to it, Extension education, no matter how successful it may be in advancing the purely material prosperity of its clientele, will fall short of its tremendous potentiality and will fail to reach desired goals.

Cooperative Extension is often described as education for action. That is, it expects to get tangible results in a comparatively short time. The extent to which this can be true depends on the end in view. Changes in farm and farm home practices on individual farms can be expected in much shorter time than changes which can be achieved only through group action; and changes in practices of any sort can perhaps be made evident more quickly than changes arising from the more fundamental purpose of Cooperative Extension, namely, the education of farmers and their families. Like democracy, education is hard to describe or define in a single sentence, but, in general, it means the wholesome, balanced development of the individual and the effective fitting of the individual into his environment and into society. In a paper given at the meeting of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities last November, Director Noble Clark of Wisconsin said, "Our major concern is the provision of new information and the improvement in the minds of farm people. It is infinitely more important that rural people know and understand the more significant problems and issues which affect them as farmers and as citizens, than that they trustingly

accept and carry out the ever increasing number of improved practices and recommendations brought to them by Extension workers." However, I do not belittle education for action. I heartily endorse the action phase so long as the objective of education is kept out in front. When action is linked with this objective, it unquestionably helps to make the program vital and dynamic.

New Features in Extension Education

Thirty-three years ago Cooperative Extension was confined almost solely to teaching and "servicing activities." It is much more than that now. In October, 1938, F. W. Peck read a paper at the Illinois School for Extension Workers from which I quote, "Up to recent years, the Extension effort consisted largely of 'offerings' of educational and service assistance to those most capable of taking advantage of them. It was intended to be a 'free advisory service'—the county agent's office was that of a rural information center, and the sign that hung in the county agent's office window might have been 'Come and get it.' Demonstrations of practices for busy farm people constituted the principal method of teaching. Then came organization influences, group interests appeared, pressure methods were used, programs of work were talked about, relations with many outside agencies were developed, and rather suddenly the Extension job came to include a whole series of requirements that could not have been foreseen in earlier years."

Today an entirely different set of job requirements has appeared. My general summary of the present job includes, (1) planning, (2) organization, (3) administration, (4) teaching, (5) "servicing activities."

As Mr. Peck points out, planning, organization and administration have become very important additional Extension activities and from now on they will be an essential part of the program. In my judgment, these activities, if carefully and intelligently handled, possess unmistakable educational values. In other words, their inclusion does not detract from the statement that Extension is a program of education.

Extension's Educational Responsibilities

In January, 1946, the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture released a comprehensive report on the scope of Extension's educational responsibilities—it listed the major fields of these responsibilities as follows:

1. Economic problems and public policies
2. Marketing and distribution
3. Social relationships, adjustments and cultural values

4. Farm homes and buildings
5. Health
6. Conservation of natural resources
7. Farm and home management
8. Rural organization and leadership development
9. Agricultural production

Agricultural Production and Conservation of
Natural Resources

At the annual meeting of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities in Washington last November, Director J. W. Burch of Missouri, in a paper entitled "Long-Range Programs and Objectives of the Extension Service" called attention to the close relationship of four of these fields and stated his preference to group them together. They are agricultural production, conservation of natural resources, farm and home management, and farm homes and buildings. Although I shall not discuss them as a group or in direct sequence, it is logical to place these four fields together.

I find no one disposed to omit agricultural production as one of the jobs of Cooperative Extension. Director Burch, in the paper to which reference has been made, expressed his views about agricultural production as follows: "Problems in the field of production technique have always commanded a major proportion of Extension's total time and effort. This situation should continue. However, looking to a well-rounded service proportionately less increase in Extension work is appropriate in this field than in other fields. The problems of soil conservation and conservation of other natural resources is an integral part of agricultural production. With no room to expand our agricultural plant, the need for greater emphasis on the conservation of natural resources is evident. We cannot let down on programs dealing with production, conservation, farm homes and buildings, and farm and home management as long as, (1) we are not applying limestone and fertilizer at a higher rate than they are being removed by the processes of erosion, leaching and plant removal, or (2) so long as the average hog farmer assumes that ten to twelve bushels of corn are required to produce a hundred pounds of pork when it has been demonstrated that this can be done with six or seven bushels, or (3) as long as the average dairy cow produces but 160 pounds of butterfat annually, which is little more than half of the 300 pounds that has been repeatedly demonstrated possible by the simple expedient of correction of feeding; to say nothing of the possibilities of breeding and culling, or (4) as long as the farm woman finds it necessary to do 81 days, eight hour days, work a year that conveniences common to urban homes would save her."

I would add to Director Burch's statement by pointing out that there is much research and educational ground yet to be covered in connection with the control of plant and animal diseases and insect pests. During the war and since, a fairly good job has been done in relation to plant diseases and insect pests, and farmers are making large demands on Extension for information as to procedures for their control. However, there is an enormous gap to be bridged in the animal field. We do not even know how to arrive at the losses suffered through animal morbidity and mortality. Perhaps we could approximate the financial losses traceable to animal deaths, but to date we are far at sea as regards the losses suffered by disease and pest attacks on animals that recover. Research with the cooperation of Extension must try to find a way to approximate animal losses due to disease and after it is found they must cooperate in finding methods for materially reducing the stupendous losses which we have largely become accustomed to take for granted.

I would also direct attention to more recent production and particularly management problems growing out of the effect of technological improvements on farm operations. One of the factors accounting for the increase of about 25 per cent in production per farm worker between 1940-1945 was the increased extent to which motor power was substituted for horse power. In case agricultural prices continue satisfactory, technological changes and improvements, according to many who claim to know, will occur at a still greater rate in the future, in which case even more than now Extension will be asked to give assistance on such problems as (1) economic use of man power; (2) appraisal of capital requirements; (3) logical order of incorporating improvements; (4) methods of securing full use of these improvements; (5) impact of technological improvements on farm planning with respect to diversity or specialization in operations.

The conservation of natural resources, as soil, water, forests, is a long never-ending process and must have a prominent place continuously as an Extension job. Over a long period, considerable emphasis has been laid on the importance of conservation, but a wide-scale recognition and appreciation of the problem of resources conservation did not come to focus until the early 30's. Not until about that time was it recognized that group action was necessary to handle the problem. In view of the fact that this country has never had a system of soil and forestry management which would permit of a permanently high level of productivity, it is most significant that an appreciation of the problem is reaching the point where it begins to match the magnitude of the job. As yet, however, we are not succeeding as well as we should in keeping the soil in place or in replacing fertility removed from the soil through crop production. Expansion of crop land, large crops and scarcity of fertilizer during the war and after, account for large declines in available plant food. Heavy demands have been made in stands of timber with insufficient forethought given to reforestation.

There is little likelihood of ever giving production, farm and home management and conservation programs second rating because of their relation to farm income which is so important in achieving the objectives of Extension education. In any community where farm income is well below average, it will be found that provisions for such things as schooling and protection of health are inadequate. It does not follow, however, that they will always be inadequate in communities in which income is on a satisfactory basis. Income alone, therefore, does not solve all the problems of rural living and progress, but if it is not given due attention and emphasis none of the problems are likely to be solved.

I think I would agree with Director Burch that from now on familiar lines such as production may require relatively less attention than has been given over to them in the past, and that proportionately more time may be appropriately devoted to some of the newer lines of work.

Marketing and Distribution

Marketing and distribution are closely related to the production process as it is possible to lose the gains made in production through inefficient marketing. After having done considerable work in this field, I think, Extension would say that the job is very difficult and complex. Determining what the marketing program ought to be, finding ways and means of implementing it, and holding the interest and support of the producers involved, often try the patience and test the resourcefulness of Extension workers. To date, the program, despite worthwhile accomplishments achieved, has not measured up to the importance of the field and I seriously doubt if it can, until a more nearly complete body of research in marketing and distribution is developed and until a larger number of men preparing for Extension work decide to specialize in these subjects.

At present, agricultural prices are high. Farmers have no difficulty in finding purchasers for their products and, therefore, the importance of marketing and distribution does not stand out now as it will, if and when prices decline as the result of a more nearly even balance between supply and demand, or as the result of any other influence. When that time comes, farmers will bear down hard on Extension forces for help in the equitable and efficient marketing and distribution of their products. Now is the time for research to clarify and to enlarge on the fundamentals underlying marketing and distribution in order that Extension can do more in pointing to basic improvement principles in marketing processes and relatively less in assisting with the solving of problems in marketing and distribution after they occur.

Public Policies

The favorite indoor talking sport in agricultural circles at present has to do with "Public Policies affecting agriculture." Much

has been said and written and the obligation of Extension to conduct educational programs in this field has been so much emphasized in reports of committees and in papers by individuals that I hesitate to discuss it. It is too important, however, to omit from a discussion of this nature.

Fortunately, American farmers in considerable numbers are realizing that international, national, and local problems and policies have a definite relation to their own welfare. They are anxious to discuss these problems and policies and to receive guidance in coming to sound conclusions about them. They want to know how monetary and credit policies, tax policies and public indebtedness, price control, and various public policies directly related to agriculture affect their business and their living. They are awakening to the importance of taking an active part in the formulation of policies and the solution of economic problems if they are to have a fair opportunity in securing a level of income that will provide a standard of living comparable to other large production groups.

Here is a relatively new job for Cooperative Extension education. At present the program offerings are handicapped by the lack of suitable subject matter for both Extension workers and discussion groups in farming communities. Professor Aull of South Carolina recently conducted a survey for the purpose of ascertaining the kind and amount of teaching offered in agricultural colleges in the field of policy related to agriculture. In a considerable number, no work at all was being offered and only in a very few could it be said that this subject is receiving attention commensurate with evident needs. Until these needs are more nearly provided for in college classrooms, Extension workers will be limited in their preparation for effective educational leadership in this challenging field.

Apparently the colleges and experiment stations have been slow to move into the field of public policies. Since issues of public policy are often highly controversial, few admit of a single positive solution, and are often the bone of contention between political parties. It is only natural for publicly supported institutions to enter such field with some hesitation. They are wise not to enter until they are well prepared with qualified talent and sufficient funds to build a body of facts that will fortify sincere and courageous leaders.

Clear thinking, not confused thinking, by farmers should be sought and cultivated by Extension in all parts of its program. Despite limitations and handicaps Extension is moving ahead with a program. In many places discussion groups have been organized for the study of pertinent economic problems and public policies. The interest displayed by these groups is most gratifying. In my own state of Minnesota, discussion groups have been in existence for the past ten years. The participants have shown a mounting interest in the subjects discussed, more willingness to take part in discussions, a desire for more information. It has been observed that they have

improved in ability to express their thoughts clearly; that they are more inclined to question lines of argument with which they do not agree and that they are more willing to accept responsibility and leadership.

If a program involving study and discussion of public policies is properly directed, I know of no other activity in Extension of greater promise for developing the kind of understanding and the spirit of loyalty to country that should characterize the citizens of a democracy. We do well once more to remind ourselves that the program of Extension is education for action and a democracy cannot flourish or long endure if its people do not have the information and insight necessary for making intelligent decisions.

Social Relationships, Adjustments and Cultural Values

This field is not foreign to the thinking and effort of workers in Agricultural Extension. The hunger for these so-called intangibles is characteristic of people generally. Without their cultivation and attainment human personality does not reach complete expression and the good life is not fully realized. An avowed purpose in helping farmers to solve economic problems, we repeat, is to clear the way for social and cultural opportunities and therefore social, cultural and spiritual growth becomes basic as an objective in Extension education. It is in connection with these values that Extension is interested in developing a wholesome community life and in maintaining the institutions essential to sound community progress. This means that Extension is interested in all constructive institutions and desires to cooperate with them in behalf of general community betterment.

Rural Schools

It is not my purpose here to name and describe all the approaches Extension can make in an educational program dealing with social, cultural and spiritual values, nor to enumerate all the institutions and agencies with which it can and should cooperate. But I wish to say something about education in rural schools and to express the hope that by consistent persuasion Extension workers can do their part in improving the rural school program which has long been inadequate compared with urban programs. When there was a general exodus of rural teachers from the schools to war plants and urban positions during the war, there was a long needed awakening to the astonishingly low salaries they had been paid. With such poor pay it was clear that they could not afford to get the amount of training required for first-class service nor could they afford to stay with teaching when they had opportunity for financial advancement in some other occupation. At present many of the schools are employing supply teachers, unable to qualify under the minimum governmental requirements for teachers and they are paying them relatively better salaries than were paid to regular teachers before the war. This situation is due, of course, to the great scarcity of

teachers. Under these conditions, the rural pupil is at even a greater disadvantage than formerly, compared with the urban pupil whose schooling opportunities are not of the best at the present time.

The following comparisons are unfavorable to the rural child and inimical to the social and cultural development we should strive for in rural communities. Also, they are inimical to the social and cultural welfare of urban communities for a number of reasons, but especially for the reason that rural youth move into urban centers in large numbers.

On the average, rural children attend school about eight per cent fewer days than urban children; rural teachers are paid about one-half as much as urban teachers; school property per pupil in rural areas has less than one-half the value of urban school property. Proportionately fewer youth of high school age are in school than are city youth in the same age bracket.

Rural Churches

I also wish to speak in behalf of the rural church which I think is indispensable to well-balanced country living. The Creator has ordained that this shall be a world not only of physical laws but of moral laws as well. There is an order of truth, justice and mercy to which we must conform. Karl Marx declared religion to be the opium of the people; a sedative which keeps men from rising up to destroy injustice. In his thinking, only matter is ultimately real. But the country in which his philosophy is entrenched has learned that there is a hunger for spiritual expression which can be satisfied only in established centers of worship where God is not left out of the reckoning.

A democratic society such as ours cannot do without well-organized vigorous churches. By cultivating things of the spirit, they fortify the principles that undergird democracy. As farm conditions change and farm families become fewer and smaller, we face the serious problem of organizing the rural religious program so that all rural people may have opportunity to participate in a healthy church life. I do not know exactly how Extension can fit into this job, but I think it can help some by encouraging the people it serves to give liberal support in both time and money to well-organized, vigorous church organizations and by encouraging rural pastors to fit their programs to the needs of rural people.

Rural Health

Health is both a social and economic problem. From the standpoint of living a happy, contented, normal life, sound health has quite as much social as economic significance, and when a community stresses safety, sanitary and general health procedures it places emphasis on social factors.

The hospital on the campus of the University of Minnesota is a public institution supported by State and county funds. Patients are sent to the hospital by the counties. Anyone visiting the out-patient ward cannot help but be impressed by the people assembled whose appearance clearly reveals suffering and a large measure of defeat in achieving a satisfying and happy existence. Many of these terribly sick people are from the rural districts. One has only to look at them to be convinced that reports showing a relatively high incidence of sickness, disease and other health limiting factors amongst rural people are not overdrawn. During the recent war, many of us were surprised by the high percentage of rejections amongst the draftees from rural districts because of either physical or mental defects.

Extension has been aware of the importance of health over most of the 33 years of its existence. It could scarcely be otherwise for repeatedly Extension workers have witnessed the severe limitations visited on farm families because of sustained illness and often the complete physical breakdown of either husband or wife. Repeatedly families have left the farm because of health difficulties.

Home demonstration agents have spread the gospel of sound health. They have accomplished much by stressing the importance of observing well-established health rules as sanitation, protective measures against infectious diseases, care of teeth, etc. They deserve a lot of credit for the frontal attack they have made on nutrition by urging the adoption of proper diets for growing children and adults. They have given full support to county nursing programs.

These splendid activities do not cover all the responsibilities of Extension in the field of health. Perhaps its major responsibility can best be discharged by active promotion of programs under the direction of health authorities. For example, (1) Extension can help by assisting rural people to organize in getting adequate health facilities established in their communities. Existing hospital beds are far too few to meet minimum needs in many places. Before the war there was an average of 1.5 general hospital beds per 1000 people in rural communities. A recognized yardstick for reasonably adequate service is 4 beds per 1000 population. (2) It can help by cooperating with health authorities in determining the kind and number of health centers needed to meet health needs. Medical educators, I understand, are doubtful as to the advisability of providing for hospitals of less than 100 beds. In their judgment hospitals of 100 beds or more are required to warrant the number, the quality and diversity of staff, the clinical and laboratory facilities required for first-rate service.

In relation to health, (3) Extension can do a fine job by cooperating with health authorities in teaching rural people to observe precautions against the contraction of diseases transmissible from animals to man. Tuberculosis and undulant fever are cases in point, and Extension should continue to cooperate in campaigns for the control of tuberculosis and brucellosis in herds and flocks. As a health precaution we should not be satisfied until every pound of milk consumed by human beings is properly pasteurized.

Extension should cooperate in (4) safety campaigns organized for the reduction of accidental deaths and injuries. Fatalities and casualties from accidental sources have always been relatively high in farming communities, and now that mechanical power and equipment is general on farms the likelihood of accidents is perhaps greater than in the past. The organization of farm safety programs by Extension are in order.

Sound health programs must be within the financial means of the people served. Toward accomplishing this end, I do not know what the responsibility of Extension may be, nor do I know the educational means to use for its accomplishment, but I do know it cannot be overlooked.

Farm Homes and Buildings

From the beginning Cooperative Extension has given help in planning and equipping farm homes and buildings. It has also assisted in remodeling buildings and adapting them to the installation of modern equipment. During the war when all housing construction was reduced to a minimum there was an inevitable lag in the program in this field. Now, we can expect a sharp awakening of interest in farm building projects as farmers have much larger liquid assets than usual and many families are preparing to invest some of these assets in the improvement of dwellings and farm buildings. Within safe limits of investment in view of probable future farm income, planning for the improvement of farm homes and buildings should be encouraged. Various studies indicate that about one-third of existing farm dwellings are in satisfactory condition, another third are in need of major improvements, and the remaining third would have to be replaced if all farm families were to have minimum-standard housing. The need is clear. The impact of comfortable attractive homes on desirable family morale is unmistakable. Any family with enough ability and ambition to do good farming is not going to be satisfied for long with dwelling facilities that compare unfavorably with the dwelling facilities enjoyed by those of similar economic status in the city.

Conveniently arranged homes, attractive in architectural design, contribute not only to economic efficiency and health but also to social and cultural values. For those undertaking the responsibility, the planning, building and equipping of a home seriously undertaken with the needs, comfort, welfare and happiness of the family in mind is a cultural as well as a practical process. Music, art and literature are cornerstones of culture, but culture is not achieved solely by reading great literature, viewing the masterpieces of art and listening to the concertos of famous composers. It often develops from lowly home and community surroundings and activities.

Rural Youth

Cooperative Extension has been so active and has accomplished so much in the development of farm youth that comment on this subject hardly seems necessary. More than twenty years ago Mr. Lovejoy, then a prominent social worker, but not related to 4-H Club work declared it to be the most significant and impressive youth program in America. As you so well know it has the undivided support of business and civic groups, press and radio, and the general public. In many cases the success of 4-H Club work has been a strong factor in securing appropriations for Cooperative Extension at federal, State and local levels.

Amongst enthusiastic supporters of 4-H Club work there is a feeling that it should be strengthened and extended; that the program is deserving of greater administrative recognition and support as an integral part of the Extension program. Larger numbers of rural boys and girls, they feel, should have 4-H Club experience. They also feel that provision should be made for extending more 4-H Club work in rural non-farm areas. Again they feel that the 4-H Club program and techniques should be improved in order to hold all members for a longer period of time, to challenge the interest of older members and to assure a higher percentage of project completions. Some supporters of 4-H work believe that programs should be planned especially for the 50 per cent of boys and girls who will move away from rural communities. This, they believe, should be done in fairness to these young people and in behalf of the general welfare. Question arises as to which rural boys and girls will find their life work in urban communities. If they can be definitely singled out, possibly programs adapted to their needs as future urban citizens should be developed. If they cannot be singled out they will be benefitted by participation in the regular 4-H program.

A part of Cooperative Extension's job in connection with 4-H Club work is to keep it properly aligned with and related to adult programs in order to achieve the best and most lasting results. In most part young people welcome responsibility; they want to do worthwhile things and they crave the recognition usually given to grown men and women. I have never believed in any movement set apart, and labeled "youth movement." Insofar as possible 4-H Club work should be in conception and operation conducted as a part of the general Extension program.

There are those who think a better 4-H Club program could be developed if more full-time 4-H Club agents were employed and if financial incentives were sufficient to attract them to the work on a career basis. Remuneration for club agents should be in keeping with training, experience and responsibilities and the door of opportunity should always be kept open to them for service as county agents, home demonstration agents and extension specialists. Since the job involves working with boys and girls, there is some point to employing young men and women for 4-H Club leadership provided they are under the general direction and guidance of experienced county and home demonstration agents.

The Older Youth

Cooperative Extension has a job in reaching a group commonly designated as "the older youth" who range in age from 18 to 26 years. It has been asserted that this is the most neglected group in the Extension program. It has been described as including the young people who are in the "between grass and hay stage," too old for 4-H Club work; too young for inclusion in farming and homemaking programs—but this observation is hardly valid. However, they are in need of services different from the types extended to boys and girls or to men and women established on farms and in farm homes. In discussing this group at the November, 1947, meeting of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Director J. E. Carrigan of Vermont referred to a growing effort to reach it and said: "Every State is now working with this group in greater or lesser degree. It is the most important age group in our population. The young people comprising it are at the age when they are making two of the most important decisions of their lives-- what is going to be their life work and where are they going to live. There is a great deal of information that should be available through the Extension Service which would assist these young people in making their decisions, especially with respect to occupations in life. We need to watch closely the work now being carried on in the various States in working with this group and to capitalize on this experience as rapidly as possible. This may well become a part of our long-range program ahead."

It is said that only about 12 per cent of these young people are in any organized group. If this is true, it would seem that there is a great opportunity to reach them effectively if Extension can develop a program which clearly recognizes their vital needs.

Who Shall be Served by Extension?

The jobs of Extension have been confined largely to farm and nonfarm rural people, with farm people receiving the lion's share of attention. Questions are now being raised as to whether or not Extension services should be extended to city people. During the war, city residents were assisted in victory garden projects and home demonstration agents have worked with city homemakers. Around metropolitan centers there are many suburban residents whose professional duties are in the city, but who grow kitchen and flower gardens and perhaps engage in other agricultural practices largely as an avocation. Homes no matter where located have common problems and on this basis it is entirely feasible for home demonstration agents to include city homes in their field of duty.

Extension's obligations, as stated in the Smith-Lever Act, is to "the people of the United States...not attending or resident in said colleges." This obligation extends to all interested irrespective

of their place of residence, age, group affiliation, race, creed, economic or social status, or other characteristics that might be used to draw lines of distinction. However, as a matter of practical consideration, in light of resources available to Extension, its major emphasis has been and should continue to be, directed to serving farm and rural people, but not to the exclusion of all other groups having a rightful claim on these services.

Making the Job Effective

Cooperative Extension has the job of making its jobs as effective as possible. This involves a sound appraisal of the jobs to be done, the preparedness of the personnel to perform them, and the adoption of teaching methods that will be most effective in bringing about desired ends. In reference to the last mentioned, there is a growing interest in more intensive work with farm families. The balanced farming program in Missouri which undertakes individual farm and farm home planning is receiving wide attention. One argument in favor of this method is that the amount of research information available and the growing complexity of farm operations baffle and confuse the farmer with respect to logical procedures. The mass of biological, economic and technological information available and needed surpasses his ability to shape it into a coordinated, usable whole. Another, which seems more to the point, is that the farm and the farm home are a unit in the thinking of the farm family. The family can understand and have confidence in a program that centers on family welfare, whereas it is unsure as to the outcome of loosely related projects which may be a success as projects, but of doubtful help in advancing family well being. Therefore, a noteworthy feature of farm and farm home planning is that it tends to secure the interest and cooperation of the family in the program. A third argument may be that the results of instruction under the farm and farm home planning method are greater than the results secured under other methods employed.

The Soil Conservation Service is working along this same line with its individual farm land planning, as is also farm forestry planning under the Norris-Doxey and related legislation.

If this method fails of general adoption; it will probably be due to inability to execute a program of farm planning education for all farmers who would like to take advantage of it. One reason why I refer to this method is that it serves as an illustration of the need for Extension workers to be alert to needed changes in methods as new problems and possibilities arise in their field of education.

In making an appraisal of the jobs to be done, Cooperative Extension must be familiar with the needs and desires of the people it should serve. Its leadership should be strong enough to stimulate and guide the thinking of its clientele, but it is not the function of this leadership to set up a program and say to the people, "take it or leave it." Cooperative Extension is moving into broader subject-matter fields not because it wills to do so, but because rural people are exhibiting a

wide variety of interests and presenting problems having new phases and implications. Sound appraisal of the significance of these interests and the importance of the new problems raised have an important bearing on the progress of Extension work. As Director Carrigan pointed out at the November meeting of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, "It is important to have our long-range objectives and long-range programs. It is just as important that they be constantly in the stage of adjustment and improvement. Extension must be a living, developing thing, otherwise it will become stagnant. Eternal alertness and readiness to make adjustments are prices we pay for continued existence. At the same time we need to avoid the other extreme--chaos. There are those who would jump on every band wagon and shift with every changing wind. This, too, is disastrous. There is a course, somewhere between stagnation and chaos, which is best defined by the term "stability." Let us have, as clearly defined as possible our objectives and our program, but let them never be final. They must be dynamic."

In determining its program and jobs it is essential for Extension to seek integration with the programs of the institutions of which it is a part, the United States Department of Agriculture, and the Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. Complete and effective integration requires clarity in the institutional programs themselves and effectiveness in all their parts. Hence, the parent institutions must chart a clearly defined course in which to exercise their respective roles of leadership, if Extension is to be successful in the years ahead in meeting its total opportunities and obligations. A job now for both the parent institutions and Extension relates to the selection and training of Extension personnel. Changes in world relationships, the impact of technological improvements, the increasing complexity of society and the demands for Extension aid coming from a better informed and more skillful rural people, call for a general upward shift in the caliber and training of Extension workers.

When necessary, Extension should bring sharply to the attention of agricultural colleges, those needs with respect to the training of future Extension workers which can be provided for in college programs. It should point out that the goal now is to prepare Extension workers who (1) are basically grounded in the physical and social sciences of significance to life in rural America; (2) are familiar with reliable sources of important information; (3) understand the background, philosophy, objectives, policies and organization of the Extension system.

It is no longer expected that graduates fresh out of college will be prepared to undertake first responsibilities in Extension work; it is recognized that they will need to go through a period of in-service training for which Extension will be chiefly responsible. Some of the results sought in in-service training are (1) skill in applying principles of psychology and education to Extension teaching, supervision and administration; (2) ability to organize rural people and stimulate leadership among them; (3) understanding of the processes by which rural people and Extension teachers can analyze local problems,

arrive at potentially sound solutions, and develop a county extension program through this process; (4) knowledge of the problems and procedures of out-of-school youth education; (5) skill in organizing, interpreting, and presenting basic, social, technical and scientific data and their implications in rural life; (6) understand the techniques and processes of evaluating the effectiveness of Extension programs.

Extension is justified in speaking with frankness to graduate schools, particularly in Land-Grant institutions, about provisions for graduate training. No matter how carefully undergraduate curricula may be planned, an Extension worker cannot long remain in the service without feeling the need for additional training. This need will be felt more keenly as the Extension program becomes more extensive, varied and complex. Short refresher courses will have their important place but increasingly sustained study at the graduate level will be considered a part of total program of Extension training. Graduate schools should carefully consider the nature of the needs of Extension workers and the conditions under which they can pursue graduate work. There is a trend on the part of graduate schools to require completion of work for a graduate degree within a period of five years. Such requirements perhaps ought to be waived for Extension workers.

It has been suggested that there be at least one graduate school in each region of the country that will give special attention to graduate training for Extension workers. I am not opposed to it but I am only mildly enthusiastic about such a proposal. I feel that Extension in Minnesota is of enough importance that the Graduate School of the University can well afford to give thoughtful attention to advanced training for its workers.

It is the duty as well as the job of Extension to call to the attention of the parent institutions existing farm and farm home conditions, situations, and problems. At present Extension is warranted in requesting comprehensive programs of research in such subjects as marketing and distribution, social and economic problems, and public policies, particularly those relating to public agricultural policy. It is warranted in making this request because the subjects are important, rural people are interested in them, and in many respects the body of tested facts pertaining to them is not sufficient as a basis for sound program building.

I have not covered all of the jobs of Extension. The very important job of selecting and training local leaders and some of the jobs belonging to specialists might well have been discussed.

As the quotation from Director Carrigan indicates, it is dangerous, if not fatal, for all of the jobs of today to be all of the jobs of tomorrow. Always there will be long-time objectives with long-

time job implications; doubtless there will always be emergencies with short-time job implications. The greatest job of all is to keep fit, prepared for adaptation to new situations, eager for progress based on sound judgment, living faith in the big job, and grim determination not to get into a rut.



points to the
right road, *but* you
must walk the road

YOURSELF

F. W. Peck

At the outset, may I confess to a feeling of inadequacy of both content and time--in doing justice to such a complex and comprehensive subject. A series of discussions would be necessary properly to consider the many facets and factors that bear upon Extension program planning and development. Hence, this paper is in more or less outline form, indicative of factors and processes that need much more delineation than our time today will permit.

Possibly the authors of this assignment considered the terms "planning" and "making" synonymous as applied to Extension programs. Possibly, too, I have been somewhat technical in differentiating between the terms in my approach to an analysis of the processes involved. One interpretation of a plan is a blueprint--a set of specifications emphasizing space, direction, coordination, unity and basic factor employment. Again a recipe represents a planning procedure, with measured amounts of ingredients and instructions for making the finished project.

It is in the making or putting together for consumption purposes that selected resources, skill of workmanship, judgments of relations, and the timing factor are combined to produce usable, salable units, either in education or in commerce.

For this discussion I have thought more in terms of developing a finished product for immediate "marketing", than merely the planning of the use of a series of factors that constitute a recipe or blueprint or list of specifications. I should like to do a little "cooking" of the ideas--a little projecting into the consumption of the product, as a test of its digestibility and its influence upon the growth and development of the consumers.

Hence, I asked myself these questions:

1. What constitutes an Extension program?
2. How is it made and who makes it?
3. How is it marketed?
4. What are the criteria of its effectiveness?

The History of Program Development

As in any educational technique, progress and development in program planning and making grew largely through the trial and error method. You are all familiar with the college "commodity" offerings of the early years--how we took out, ala Farmer's Institute style, recommended farm practices including testimonials of those who had tried them.

Originally, the Extension Service locally was to be a free advisory service, the county agent's office was to be a rural information center, and the sign "come and get it" might well have been hung in the office windows. The old practical educational theory of "he who runs may read" was the underlying principle involved. Demonstrations of practices for busy farm people, who were certainly on the run, constituted the principal Extension method of teaching. Then came organization influences; group interest became manifest; pressure devices were in evidence; programs of work were talked about; relations with many outside agencies were developed; and rather suddenly the Extension job grew to include a whole series of requirements that could not have been foreseen in the earlier years. From this progress came the county or localized projects--grouped into an elementary type of program, which were suggested by committees of farm men and women. This was an effort to vocalize and systematize demand, as contrasted to the earlier emphasis upon supply offerings.

From these experiences and through realization that improved techniques and methods of planning and executing better balanced and more adequate programs were required to meet the diverse requirements of farm family demand for needs and wants, there have developed improved processes of Extension program making.

This means going from miscellaneous offerings to a project series to a coordinated integrated program unit, designed to encompass those elements required to meet the expressed economic, social, and educational needs and desires of farm people. Hence, a program is more than a jumble of things to do--it is the result of planning, weighing, measuring, discarding, selecting, combining, and integrating both the content and the methodology of delivering a balanced, adequate educational effort to assist rural people to advance their levels of living. This means the program is in the interest of the public welfare.

How is Such a Program Made?

Let us consider the two principal categories of elements that constitute the ingredients commonly used to build Extension programs, namely supply and demand factors. Inasmuch as programs presently are based upon expressed demands, this side of the equation may be analyzed first.

1. Who constitutes the demand?

Is it the farm organization that sets the program? Is it a government agency? Does it originate in the minds of the county Extension workers? Does a vocal farm leader set the stage for the program? Or is there an organized group responsibility that represents a consensus from which is formulated a balanced comprehensive program based on consumer preferences?

I note the approach being made in marketing research, under the Hope-Flannagan Act, to the study of consumer preferences in selected commodities. This recognizes the varying interests of consumers and contemplates bringing this element in distribution prominently into the foreground in marketing research. It would seem to represent a prominent factor in program building.

Farmers demand or consumer preferences in relation to program development requires an experienced and careful technique of ascertaining and selecting those elements of demand that are important and that may be fitted into practical Extension programs. It is not difficult to obtain a wide variety of expressed needs and desires, but it is not simple to sift them and weigh their importance and the potential possibilities of directing a program that will be effective in consumption channels.

Farm leadership is expressed in so many different ways and is prompted by various types of objectives and motives. Therefore, the job of the county Extension workers in planning and formulating recommended programs on either a local or a regional basis needs to be expert in interpreting and in selecting those problems and situations that lend themselves to a practical program that will prove increasingly effective in meeting the needs and the desires of the maximum number of consumers.

May we conclude, therefore, that there is a professional responsibility represented by county Extension workers and by State and federal Extension representatives of both subject matter and administrative functions as well as responsibilities of lay farm people involved in this process of selecting and emphasizing lines of work from which the program is built.

To what extent are programs still made by those who feel it their function, as "experts", to decide what is best for other people. We have had a good deal of emphasis placed upon the needs of the rural population by those who believe themselves capable of prescribing programs, be they economic, social, spiritual, or political in nature and content. Some industrialists do it, some labor leaders do it, and so do some farm leaders. Possibly, there was a time when Extension representatives pursued this role but can we not say, at this time, that the programs are farm and home stimulated and fashioned?

2. Is indicated demand for needs or wants, or both?

In the process of ascertaining and interpreting consumer demand, is there a clear differentiation between needs and wants of farm people? You may recall a poll taken by one of the farm journals a few years ago as to the principal desires of farm women residing in the area served by this publication. I recall that the results of

the poll were published while we were attempting to make an Extension program in Minnesota. Whether or not these results influenced our conclusions, I am unable to say, but I wonder if times and conditions have changed so much as to rule out the significance of the answers given by these farm women. The emphasis was upon what they wanted, not necessarily what they needed. The major considerations in the minds of those interviewed were, in order of their preference:

a. "Things of the spirit." The emphasis was upon the improvement of the rural church; upon the moral quality of the community; upon neighborliness and the practice of the golden rule; about concern for the environment in which the younger generation was being reared.

b. "Things of the mind." Rural education needs; the traveling rural library; the quality of the rural and daily press; participation in civic affairs and finding ways and means of stimulating the urges of rural people to improve themselves through cultural processes. These are examples of this category.

c. "Things of the body." It is significant that less emphasis was placed upon the practical economic needs and wants, although the poll was taken when economic conditions were less favorable than today. Farm and home conveniences, labor saving devices and the bodily comforts of the rural home were important but were placed third in the relative weights of important desires.

In any analysis of farm needs and wants it would appear important to consider carefully:

a. Evidence as to the extent and importance of stated needs and wants.

b. Who says so.

c. What is the character of the consumer demands--temporary and passing or those that represent permanent building processes?

d. Well thought through diagnosis of farm problems--with particular attention to conclusions that require educational techniques in training people to help themselves, in contrast to ready-made prescriptions--with directions on the bottle.

3. Programs cannot properly be built without a high sense of educational motivation by the planners. Motivation, therefore, is fundamental, as a professional responsibility in program making. To what extent is educational intent so prominently emphasized as to point the contrast between education on the one hand, and propaganda and service emphasis on the other. Adherence to generally recognized principles of education embodying independence of bias and prejudice, avoids many difficulties that may result with an unbalanced "service" program.

4. Finally, on the demand side is there an adequate understanding by program builders of the varying characteristics of farm people? As consumers, they are the dominant figures in any program. How they think and act--why they act and react--what motivating impulses prompt their reception to applied programs--these are fundamental as background bases for selecting, combining and coordinating the supply factors which the professional group utilizes in fulfilling their responsibilities in program development.

It is in this realm that I feel there is need of strengthening professional participation in program decisions. Most of us unfortunately are not adequately trained in those several branches of the social sciences that deal with human impulses and habits. Generally, agricultural college curricula have not included required courses in psychology and sociology or political science. During the collegiate training period of most of us the emphasis was in the fields of the biological and natural sciences. Then, we suddenly were faced with two important responsibilities--representing an equation wherein supply and demand played fundamental roles. We knew the supply side, but people, representing the consumer side, we did not know. What we have learned in this field was by slow experience and bought at great cost, in many instances. Hence, the present emphasis upon training-in-service courses in the social sciences as a balancing factor to our technical training as Extension experts in agriculture and home economics.

The Farm Foundation has indicated its interest in the field of training-in-service courses that may be pursued by certain classes of Extension workers, by offering scholarships for this purpose. You are familiar with the limited number provided by the Farm Foundation. We desire to see the resources in this project increased as to aid more Extension employees to fit themselves for more effective program planning and application.

The Supply Side of the Equation

Here we deal with basic raw materials gleaned from research efforts and from farm and home experiences--refined, organized, and systematized for Extension teaching purposes. A whole series of choices center in this processing procedure of selecting, discarding, combining, and integrating the content of a program.

Decision as to content, its packaging, and the how of marketing the product as finally processed, become important considerations of the professional group charged with the responsibility of refining the demand suggestions, combining and coordinating them, and selling the program to the consumers.

Presumably those who decide upon what materials and resources are utilized in making the program--both in the field representing demand, and in the conclusions reached by those dealing in supply, are limited by what is available in the form of supply material and by the personnel and budget problems that face them. Hence, the importance of choice in arriving at decisions as to what to undertake and how to undertake it. Here enters the weighing and judgment processes as to what is most important, the amount, type and form of ammunition that can be marshalled for attacking the problems, how much can be expended for it and who can best handle the subsequent assignments.

The process of "packaging" Extension material that is used for any program designed for the available market is extremely important. Wide variations exist in the choice and preparation of salable Extension information and educational aids and techniques. The premiums should be placed upon originality, simple understandable language, consumer appeals and thought-provoking incentives for self-improvement of farm people.

The tendency of any educational system is to wear the ruts of teaching content and of methodology deeper and deeper. Extraordinary incentives, at times, appear to be necessary to stimulate change, progress and new methods of both teaching and "service" techniques. One of the processes of making Extension programs, it seems to me, should center in exploring new methods of packaging, changed types of emphasis, and superior techniques of preparing and utilizing the available source materials that feature the particular program being developed.

Administrative Responsibilities in Program Making

The structural organization of the Extension Service in many Land-Grant Colleges follows more or less a common pattern growing out of functional assignments. The Extension teaching force is commonly referred to as specialists in various lines of work, more or less designated on a commodity basis. The supervisory force serves as an intermediary between field workers and the top level of administration centering in the director's office. It is this top level of responsibility that I should like to emphasize with respect to the planning, making, and executing comprehensive programs. Varying types of functional and structural organization are only important under the test of management operations. The general manager, therefore, namely, the Director, and his administrative assistants have unique responsibilities that I do not believe can be delegated to others in this area of work.

I recognize that the marks of successful executive administration lies in the selection of competent personnel; in the delegation of authority; and in the general approvals of policies, plans, and procedures that require executive consideration.

May I be bold enough, in this connection, to say that I believe there is a special charge upon the top-level of administration in program making and execution which requires specific direction by the director serving as coordinator and integrator of lines of work and of personnel. I should think this would be one of the toughest, but one of the most important responsibilities that cannot be delegated to lower levels of administrative responsibility.

Marketing Considerations

To what extent, presently, are the principles of "selling" applicable to the processes of preparing material for consumption and getting it into the adoption of practices and training of those who use the product? Possibly this question smacks too much of commercialism and is not properly dignified for the field of educational effort. However, in the process of making any program, the marketing of it is of paramount importance for why make it unless it is designed to be consumed by those for whom it is developed?

The preparation and adoption of programs is conditioned by the extent to which market demands are understood and utilized in program making, and are so fashioned as to be aids to the successful selling of the program.

Every director of Extension has numerous "distribution" problems. His force is engaged in putting production into consumption. The field of operations centers in delivering types and forms of education designed to advance the levels of living and to satisfy the recognized needs and wants of rural people.

If I were to break the term "distribution" into problem areas or types of important considerations that relate to the processing and building of programs, I would include the following:

1. The purpose to be served by the adopted program. Is it intended merely to improve farm and home practices? Is it built on a commodity basis or is it to concern the family farm and home as a unit, comprehensive in its economic and social implications? Possibly the program is intended to be strictly mental training for those who are not expected to take direct action. In any event, the unit objective is a starting point in building for the market that is to be served.

2. The breakdown of the program that may be referred to as packaging or the doses to be offered at any given time. In other words, how is the program to be delivered in logical sequence and continuity with the main objective prominently in mind.

3. Advertising the program, how, when, and by whom. This involves types of appeals, the arousing of interest, and the stimulating of urges of people to participate.

4. The timing element--when to launch, how rapidly to push, and the logical sequence of principal features of the program.

5. Methodologies of putting the program into effect. This is an organizing job requiring careful planning and selection of methods involving the use of educational principles and aids.

6. The casting or personnel selection, designed to get the most from available personnel resources. This requires an analysis of the respective abilities, capacities and limitations of those who have the responsibility of getting the program into action.

7. Financing the program into consumption channels. This means budget allocations involving choices and decisions usually not easy to make.

8. Personnel training-in-service and supervision in the conduct of field operations.

9. Keeping up with market fluctuations in demand. This means flexibility in program content and in methods of teaching and translation into farm and home action. The above admittedly is but a partial list of considerations.

Tests of the Program

There may be numerous tests that can be applied to an Extension program before it is accepted as reasonably complete and launched into the field on an action basis. Those indicated here again will prove to be but a partial list.

1. Is the program sound in its function and objectives; in its economics; in its human appeal to worthy practical purposes and aims; and does it adhere to educational principles?

2. Is it geared to the indicated chosen problems that represent needs and wants of appreciable numbers of farm people?

3. Is the timing right, and is the tempo of its application adjusted to the reception ability of its consumers?

4. Is the program built around the unit purpose for which it is designed and are its parts coordinated into a unified attack upon the problems it is intended to reach?

5. Is the program fundamental in its concept, permanent in its effects and will it grow in practice?

6. Is it dynamic in its approach, challenging in its outline and content, and vigorous in its application to field use?

7. Does it contain flexibility to meet changing conditions and does it permit adjustment to highly varying individual consumer abilities and capacities?

8. Are there safeguards in mind to avoid overselling at the start with relapses in confidence and enthusiasm by both the professional staff and by the people being reached?

9. Finally, is it likely to satisfy those it is intended to serve and will it generate enthusiasm and satisfaction of those who operate it?

I am not certain that the assignment of this subject contemplated any mention of criteria for judging the effectiveness of adopted programs. Technically, it is not a phase of "making" but rather is a part of measuring results.

However, it occurs to me that preparation for judging the results of any applied program may well be included in the planning of the enterprise. In such planning, the emphasis might be placed upon the following criteria:

1. Is the Extension personnel enthusiastic and eager to participate in planning, formulating, and carrying into effect well organized, comprehensive programs?

2. The degree to which the program meets the objective requirements upon which the program is based.

3. The scope of the program in meeting consumer's needs and wants, in terms of unit completeness, as well as in numbers reached.

4. The quality of the educational service rendered.

5. Indications of the stimulus to the urges of farm people to follow the program and to go beyond it--as evidence of self-improvement and self-dependence.

6. Do field reports, as the program unfolds, accurately reflect progress and achievement and are the reports a part of the planned program?

*Harness the brains and the heart
of your staff to a high ideal. =*

ORGANIZATION OF THE STATE EXTENSION STAFFS*

T. Roy Reid

The Congress set a new pattern for agricultural education when it passed the Smith-Lever Act. This resulted in a new pattern in educational organization. The cooperative activity established between the States and the Federal Government by this Act has grown greatly in magnitude, power and usefulness. In its thirty-four years it has achieved results that have given great advantages to farm people and to all consumers of the nation.

The State Extension organizations are not alike. Basically, they have many common features. In places they are very dissimilar. It is expected that they should be. This is other evidence that "all the keys do not hang from one man's girdle."

The U. S. Department of Agriculture, though a strong factor in the cooperating agencies established by the Smith-Lever and subsequent Acts, has not attempted to press its particular fancy in organization, if it has such. The State universities have had full freedom in molding their own organizations. The Office of Education, in its 1930 study, made appropriate comment when it said:

"Smith-Lever Extension has been set up in the Land-Grant Colleges with definite objectives quite distinct from resident instruction and research. An administrative and operating organization has been developed for the specific purpose of attaining these objectives. Methods that depart widely from those prevailing in resident instruction have been accepted as appropriate to the purposes that characterize Smith-Lever work."

While methods have been adopted that depart widely from resident instruction, there are evidences in the organizational structures of the Extension organizations of the touch of the academic hand, in most cases skillfully used.

When Karl Knaus first talked with me about coming here, he told me that he wished me to take the same subject which he had asked me to discuss at the workshop at Madison, Wisconsin, in October 1946. He assured me that this would be a different group to the one that attended the Madison workshop. Those few who are here and who were also at Madison will have to bear with much repetition.

*Mr. Reid was prevented from attending the workshop by duties that required his personal attention in Washington. The paper prepared for the occasion is included in the report, however.

Before we go further into considerations affecting types of Extension organizations as they are generally constituted, it may be profitable to review some of the important elements needed for effective administration and which have force in any organization. Twelve things considered generally essential are briefly summarized:

1. The organization be established to get as direct and simple action as possible in achieving its objectives.
2. All necessary functions should be assigned to units of the organization and not be left dangling for all units to take part in or to leave the tasks undone.
3. Each unit should have its responsibility clearly defined.
4. Overlapping responsibility should be avoided and, when it is found, correction should be definitely and clearly made.
5. The standard pattern of the organization should be followed in all units so as to give consistency in methods of organizational structure.
6. No one in the organization should have more than one boss, and he should know who this is and report to him.
7. Responsibility should be accompanied by authority to carry out that responsibility.
8. The workload should not be too heavy and be balanced between units.
9. Lines of authority should be followed and dealings should be through organizational channels.
10. Freedom should be given to units to act, within established policies and basic procedures, without fear that actions may be reversed or censured.
11. Top officials should give their attention to policy and leave the details to those who must carry them into operation.
12. Close check should be kept on the organization to see that it meets changing needs and is not becoming out of proportion in any of its units and to see that it remains as simple as is possible for effective operation.

With these principles in mind and with our knowledge of the unique activity that the Extension Services perform, we may observe organization charts which depict organization types found in State Extension organizations. The organization begins with the top

cooperating organizations. The U. S. Department of Agriculture and the State Land-Grant College or University. It extends into the third cooperating governmental unit, which generally participates in the financing and gets great advantage from the operations, the county or parish--as it is called--in this great State.

This county unit, while having very little if any participation in administration of Extension, is the one that probably receives the most attention of those who administer the program. The face to face contact with the farmer is the fundamental thing in Extension work and this is most frequent in the county unit.

What is the Extension organization in a county? There is no common answer. In a few State organizations there is one person who is in charge. In some State organizations there may be as much as six separate units of work reporting to three--at least--different places in the State office. This is the case where the county agent is responsible for work with adult white farmers, where the home demonstration agent is responsible for work with white women, where there are similar positions for work with Negro farmers and farm women and where there are 4-H Club workers responsible one for boys and the other for girls. There are many in between variations. The multiple units for Extension work in the county are still probably the most common. As the number of county workers increases the problems of program coordination increase. There is a trend toward having one person represent the director in a district or in a county in matters pertaining to budgets and overall programs.

The county Extension agents are generally responsible to district agents or to persons having other titles who serve limited territories within the States. There seems to be considerable variation in the responsibility and authority of these district agents.

Some States have the State agent--one for county agent work, one for home demonstration, and one for 4-H Club work.

The supervision of the specialists appears to be very varied in the State organizations. More often the specialists appear to have two points from which they receive direction; one being the subject matter department of the college to whom he is responsible for what he teaches and the other is an Extension official who supervises his methods and movements. A new position is appearing in some State services, variously designated as program coordinator, program supervisor or similar title. In general its function is to give some supervision to Extension specialists for the director, coordinate work of specialists, and with the assistance of district agents make subject matter assistance available in planning and carrying out county Extension programs.

The supervision of home demonstration work seems to vary widely in its place in the organization ranging from responsibility to the

head of the home economics department, who may not have any direct organizational relation to any other Extension official to those places where the home demonstration work is supervised by a woman who serves as assistant director. The more common pattern is to have a home demonstration leader responsible to the director who supervises the work of both home economics specialists and county home demonstration agents.

In most cases Extension is headed by a director who reports directly to the president of the institution and to the federal director of Extension. But there are many variations here with which you are familiar and which cover positions by you and your colleagues in other States.

A little further inquiry into the cause of so many differences in Extension organization may aid our understanding of them. As previously stated, there has been much freedom in institutions to determine the type of organization. The pre-Smith-Lever farm demonstration work where Dr. Seaman A. Knapp had a rather uniform type of organization left its good features in most of the States. It was simple and designed for very limited activities as compared with present-day Extension programs. It dealt largely with local demonstrations. Today the Extension programs are very extensive and varied. They cover local needs and also are concerned with national and international matters affecting agriculture which are the same in the counties of Maine or the parishes of Louisiana.

There has, of necessity, been much revamping of Extension organizations since its beginning. Some of this has been done by getting new structures. Others appear to have been done by building "lean-to's" onto the old structure.

Some of the organization structures appear to have been built around personalities. These may work well as long as the dominating personality is in control. Often there is a need for radical revision of the organization and consequent disruption of work when the person in charge in such an organization is changed.

There is evidence that some organization has been influenced by scientifically trained persons who do not have much concern for administration and who take what they find in an organization and allow it to grow into various shapes so long as it does not seriously impede scientific and technical activities.

It is not easy to change an Extension organization because of the multiple interests involved. This difficulty is not sufficient to justify cumbersome organizations which limit possible achievements.

It does not make material difference in the service rendered so long as the organization permits freedom for intelligent, constructive, practical action by those who work directly with farm folks.

Periodic reviews of any organization that performs many functions and whose functions are carried on by many people is essential for efficient administration. It should be remembered that "a thousand years scarce serves to form a State; an hour may lay it in the dust. (Byron)"

A critical review of the Extension organizations raises many administrative questions that deserve close study and wise decisions based on the facts of such study. Among these are:

Should the Extension director be solely responsible for Extension work with direct responsibility to the president or is there an advantage in combining Extension, research and resident instruction administration under one head?

Shall Extension workers carry their own responsibility for technical accuracy or can this most advantageously be vested in the ranks of those who teach or do research?

Shall the division of activities be according to special groupings of people such as adults and youths, shall they be by subject matter to be taught, or shall it be according to the needs of the problem?

Shall there be a county director of Extension work with general responsibility and authority for all parts of the Extension program in the county?

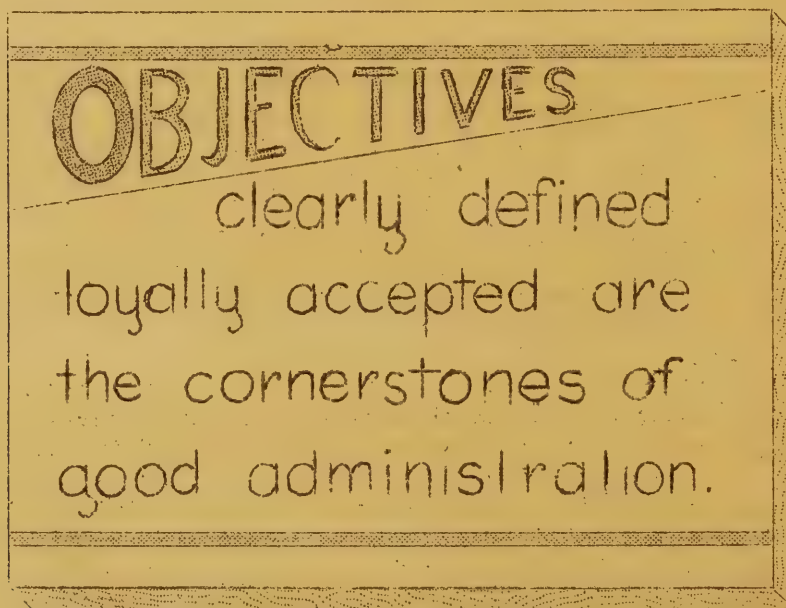
A question which may have larger future application is, What plan will be used by Extension to get most effective application of programs which are devised for the development of areas of like soils and interest extending into several States? As a particular example, What can be done for the development of the great fertile area of land that composes the Mississippi Delta of Missouri, Tennessee, Mississippi, Arkansas and Louisiana and which offers as great potentials for agricultural inhabitants as any area in any land?

These are only suggestive of administrative questions that need an answer now. The complications that come with large increased volume of functions, with the vast broadening of the sphere of influence of Extension and with the large increase in funds and personnel make urgent the need for more intensive attention to the administrative aspects of Extension. Administration is a specialized function as much as is any of the subject matter fields. It has largely been handled by persons who were trained in the sciences of agriculture. In some cases it has been done about as well as the Chamber of Commerce Secretary does a project on Livestock Production. Mostly it has been too much neglected. It is most gratifying to see the work that has been done in the Administrative Workshop. You are the most experienced

in administration of any of your staffs. To many of the others it is burdensome detail. Often administrators shunt off the responsibility which they have for administration by speaking disparagingly of it as "the housekeeping tasks." It is in the full sense—where housekeeping tasks are carried on is where family character is developed, where attitudes are shaped, where energy is stimulated, where family action originates. The family develops according to what happens there. Likewise an agency develops according to the intelligence, enthusiasm, earnestness, honesty and drive that goes into its administration.

I look back and see what I missed by not having an opportunity to participate in a workshop of this kind when I had Extension responsibilities. I commend your leaders for the fine work arranged in this conference, for the fine participation that they have secured in it. Its results should be reflected in increased achievements in program activities, in efficiencies in operations, in smoother coordination of all work performed and of greater personal satisfactions to those who do Extension work and those who receive its benefits.

Good administration consists in its practice. There is need for experimentation and courageous application of new methods in administration as much as there is in agricultural practices. You are the ones to make such use of administrative knowledge. I am one that is confident you will.



Ralph W. Tyler

1. The term evaluation is increasingly in use these days, and there is danger that it will be a "faddist" term unless clearly understood and carefully used. Evaluation literally means to ascertain the values of something. We are using it in two connections in this workshop, first as one of the functions of administration to evaluate the Extension program, and today we are concentrating our attention upon the particular task of evaluating the administrator himself and his work. The evaluation of a purposeful function like administration means to ascertain how far the purposes or objectives of administration are being attained.
2. The significance of evaluation arises from its:
 - 2.1 Usefulness in guiding the work of administration. Without appraisal of results we have no sound basis for improving our efforts. We are like the marksman who shoots at the target but does not see where his shot went. Was it too high? Too low? Or what?
 - 2.2 Helpfulness in identifying needs for concentrating effort.
 - 2.3 Psychological security to the administrator and staff to know that he is really getting results.
 - 2.4 Public relations value. In making clear to the public the values actually being got from the program.
 - 2.5 Experimental testing of administrative devices. In this sense the evaluation of administration is like the work of an experiment station.
3. The process of evaluation involves:
 - 3.1 Defining the purposes or objectives.
 - 3.2 Obtaining evidence as to how far the objectives are being realized.
 - 3.3 Interpreting the evidence.
4. These seem obvious and simple, but there are certain further analyses necessary in getting an adequate basis for evaluation.
 - 4.1 Two levels
 - 4.1.1 Opportunity for the attainment of purposes, that is, are their facilities, structures, organization available for these purposes?

4.12 Actual results. Does the program actually attain the purposes?

4.2 Illustrations of these two levels, in the case of three administrative functions.

4.21 The function of providing competent personnel.

4.211 First level. Have recruitment procedures been set up to inform and guide young people into Extension work at the time they are making vocational plans? Are personal histories of promising candidates being obtained? Are pre-service training programs being planned and conducted? Are assignment procedures guided by comprehensive personnel and situational data? Have induction procedures been instituted? Is in-service training based on analyses of needs of personnel for training? Is the in-service training program geared to Extension development? Is a continuing talent inventory maintained and are re-assignment and promotion based on the evidence of inventory?

4.212 Second level. Is the quality of staff personnel entering the profession showing improvement? Are new staff members better trained? Are new staff members making better adjustments in their jobs? Are staff members in service actually gaining in competence? Are promotions giving recognition to those with requisite talents? Etc.

4.22 The function of program planning.

4.221 First level. Are the objectives of the county and State programs developed from pertinent facts, long range purposes, and recognized needs? Is there "grass roots" participation in formulating the objectives? Are the activities in the program calculated to attain the objectives? Do the activities involve people who need the participation? Are the activities of the program appropriate for the stage of development of the participants? Do they use available resources? Are effective teaching methods used? Etc.

4.222 Second level. Are the objectives adequate, appropriate, comprehensive, attainable? Are the desired results actually being attained, that is, does the program really change the people in the ways sought? Etc.

4.23. The function of interpreting Extension work.

4.231 First level. Is the public relations program built on evidence of need for (a) information, (b) attitude changes, (c) more cooperation? Is the analysis of need made in terms of what and whom, that is, essential needs of each identifiably different group? Are media chosen for each group and type of communication in which effective? Etc.

4.232 Second level. Do the various public groups actually receive the information intended, shift attitudes, give needed cooperation? Etc.

5. Since administration has no ends except to promote the objectives of Extension work, the ultimate evaluation of administration is in terms of the greater attainment of the objectives of Extension work. Hence, if we are examining the ultimate effect of administration on the county program we have the two levels of evaluation here also.

5.1 Does the county agent provide opportunity for the attainment of the material and human objectives of Extension work?

5.2 Are these material and human objectives actually being realized?

5.21 Increased production.

5.22 Increased farm income.

5.23 Better land use.

5.24 Improved health.

5.25 Broader and deeper interests.

5.26 Skill in problem solving.

5.27 Social attitudes.

5.28 Appreciation of farm life and of agriculture's contribution to national life.

5.29 Increased participation in civic affairs at all levels.

6. Criteria of a good evaluation program.

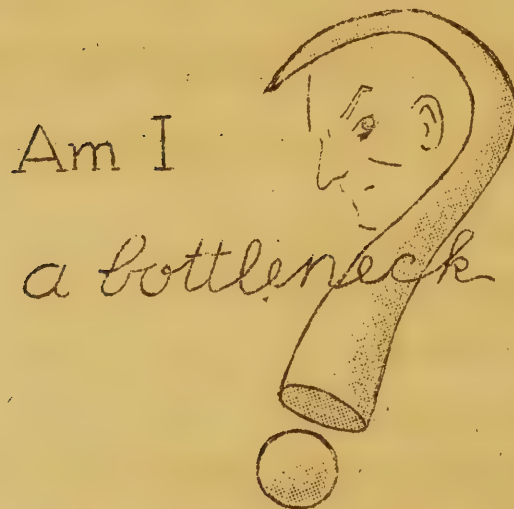
6.1 Clear definition of objectives.

6.2 Valid instruments, that is, the means for obtaining evidence are appropriate to the kind of evidence sought.

6.3 A considerable degree of objectivity in the evidence and its interpretation.

- 6.4 A reliable procedure, that is, the sampling of evidence is representative and adequate for drawing the conclusions to be made.
- 6.5 Evidence of change, improvement or progress is obtained, not simply evidence of present status alone.
- 6.6 Practicability. The evaluation program is one which can actually be carried out with the resources available.

In summary, evaluation is a powerful process for guiding administration. It involves several levels of appraisal and a variety of techniques, and it is essential to the agent, the supervisor and the administrator.



Am I

a bottleneck

THE JOB OF THE SPECIALIST

E. J. Kreizinger

I. Qualifications of a Specialist

1. Actively interested in people, particularly farm people.
2. Should be a teacher.
3. Must understand farm people, how they react and why they react as they do.
4. Be able to meet with
 - (a) farm folk, (b) county personnel, (c) experiment station personnel, (d) administrators and supervisors in Extension, and (e) other workers in his subject matter field. In contact with farmers at meetings he must be alert and leave with the people in attendance the feeling that he is interested in them and their problems. Avoid a tendency to preach to folks in attendance at meetings and try to "Lay down the law" to them without inviting participation or individual thinking. It is of increasing importance to mention radio which in most of our States is coming into prominence.
5. Be one of the group of which he is a part.
6. Be willing to accept responsibilities of the job.

II. Technical Training

1. Must know his subject matter, how and where to go to keep up on advances in his subject matter field.
2. Must be able to interpret technical papers, condense them, simplify them, and present material in talks, as bulletins or circulars, on the radio, as news stories or by means of slides, in such a way as to bring about changes in practices.

III. Keeping up in Subject Matter Field

1. Keep abreast of advances as they affect agriculture.
2. Report only established facts.
3. Keep research workers informed of problems developing in the field.

4. Work with subject matter department in developing a plan of work.
5. Housing of specialist dependent upon physical facilities--less important than spirit of cooperation.
6. Be cognizant of advances by other public and private agencies.

IV. Working with Industry

1. Keep abreast of industrial developments.
2. Keep industry informed of needs of farm people.
3. Enlist industry to help in the programs of farm people.

V. Work in the County

1. Subject matter

- a. Main function is to teach agent using best methods possible. Build up the county agent in the eyes of the farm folk of the agent's county.
- b. Know the agriculture of the county--how it fits into agriculture of the State and nation.
- c. Plan work as agent needs to fit into agent's plan of work. Specialist's time in county should be in proportion to the importance of that field in the county.
- d. Use experiment station personnel at State or district subject matter meetings.
- e. Furnish agent with materials needed. Sometimes an agent is entirely uninformed on a particular specialist's field and yet that field might be of considerable importance in the county. Then the specialist must see that the agent is well trained in that field so he can gain the confidence of the people with whom he works. Some agents may be inclined to take advantage of the specialists and request his presence at every meeting of any importance in the county. The specialist with the supervisors should determine whether the presence of the specialist is really necessary at the meetings for which he is requested.

2. Program Planning

- a. The specialist has a particular responsibility with special interest or commodity committees in specialist's subject matter field.

b. Acts in advisory capacity

(1) Help interpret problems, (2) offer technical advise, and (3) correlate programs where possible.

c. At county-wide planning meetings

(1) Advise, (2) correlate, and (3) know philosophy of Extension.

3. After Planning Meeting

a. Assist agent with Plan of Work

b. Assist in evaluation of program. The specialist is not a miracle man. He requires the cooperation of the agent by having the agent be willing to learn and to accept the responsibility of carrying the material to farm folk in the county after it is given him by the specialist. However, the main responsibility for the information which the county agent has, in addition to his local information, is from the specialist.

VI. Specialist Plan of Work and Program

1. Developed as a result of agents plan of work and county programs. He must plan his work so that he can get to the agent the material the agent needs in working with farm folk on the problems which they in their planning meetings have set out to overcome.
2. Must check with supervisors.
3. Specialist may bring ideas to agent and farm people. Based on the information the specialist has from the experiment station and other sources, he may see the necessity for the development of a certain program in the State or in a portion of the State. It is up to the specialist to bring this program to the attention of the farmers.

VII. The Specialists in broad programs--health, housing, recreation, victory gardens, etc. Immediately two or more specialists need to work together very closely.

1. Work together in program planning, both county and State.
2. Keep supervisors informed of objectives in subject matter field and progress being made in county, district and State.

3. Work with supervisor closely on

a. Need for specialist in counties

b. Amount of time to be spent in counties.

4. Assist supervisors in evaluation of county program.

VIII. The specialists' relationship with administrators. The specialist should:

1. Be acquainted with the philosophy of Extension. He should know the Acts that brought Extension into being and be acquainted with the objectives and aims of the Service. His conduct should be such as to be worthy of a State and federal employee.

2. Recognize that he is a part of a large group of workers with a common interest and objective.

(a) Stay within budget, (b) cooperate in scheduling, etc., and (c) serve on committees as deemed necessary by administrators.

3. Report to administrators on subject matter field—particularly on State-wide activities.

4. Be allowed to express initiative. He should expend his time to the utmost advantage—have time to do his field work in the various counties, have time in the office to prepare material for agents, and we must not forget the obligation of the specialist to his family.

5. Have adequate facilities for performing work.

6. Have opportunity for professional growth.

PLANNING reduces
mental labor
required
in production.

THE SUPERVISOR'S JOB

O. C. Croy

There is a general pattern of supervision in Extension work with modifications in application, State by State. There is also modification in function of different types of supervisors within a particular State. We are more interested, however, in the basic principles of supervision as a guide to administrators and others.

In order that we may tie in with the general theme of this particular workshop there are some general principles or policies that are important to consider along with a discussion of the supervisor's job.

1. The director must be a democratically functioning administrator. Such an administrator will be interested in choosing and developing supervisors who can be self directing rather than followers of orders. A part of the challenge in being a supervisor is the opportunity to grow under the leadership of a director who administers by sharing. Sharing in policy formation places responsibility and breeds loyalty. Supervisors who have to wait for directives will never know how to meet new situations as they arise in the district. The director has the responsibility for initiating a professional improvement program with supervisors that will keep them growing and adjustable to new needs and responsibilities.

2. There must be provision for program coordination at the State level. If we are to teach farm people to think through their situations, help them organize themselves to solve their own problems, we often face programs broader in scope than projects and single practices. This often calls for coordination of two or more subject matter departments. If the Director is too busy with administrative routine, policy matters and public relations, some one else should have this responsibility. Plans of work and annual reports should be prepared on the basis of coordinated planning rather than on the basis of departmental subject matter.

3. Every one on the staff should have an understanding of his or her part in the integrated administrative set up in the State. Supervision will be most effective when other workers understand their related functions and can see their reward for not being isolationists. This is a responsibility of administration.

4. Some one on the county level should be administratively in charge. The agent to be in charge should have administrative ability and function in a democratic way. The director should see

that supervisors, agents and secretaries understand this policy. The agent in charge should not be the boss of other agents and determine what they do, but should recognize and practice a democratic procedure.

5. There should be one line of administrative communication from the State office to the county and return. One supervisor should have this function and serve as chairman of all persons having a program supervision responsibility in the district. The chairman should set the situation for coordination of supervision by two-way communication with other supervisors in the district.

These policies will help to set the stage for effective supervision. It may be a function of supervision to help get these policies in action. There must be a recognition also that many workers other than so called supervisors carry on supervisory functions in relation to their particular responsibility.

A job analysis of the work of Extension supervisors will indicate specific functions. The emphasis at different points and at different times depends upon the training and experience of the agents in the county, the status of lay leadership and its ability to help formulate program policies and the general economic situation.

For effective supervision there are some basic considerations.

1. Supervision in the county, district and in the State should be integrated.

a. Supervision is a cooperative activity. Mutual professional confidence among supervisors in one another will grow out of sharing ideas and planning. This sets a fine example for county staff members.

b. Many of the larger unit programs, in which farm people are indicating needs, require joint planning by agents, specialists and supervisors. Planning can be made an educational procedure for the staff as well as for farm people.

c. Supervisors should set the situations for agents and specialists to plan together.

This can be accomplished by major unit work committees in the district or State composed of both agents and specialists who will jointly--

- (1) Survey the problem and determine objectives.
- (2) Outline suggested procedures.
- (3) Determine materials to be used.
- (4) Agree upon a division of responsibility.
- (5) Outline additional subject matter training needed by agents.

In this coordinated approach there is more of each worker finding his place and less of delegating responsibility and authority.

2. Supervisors should keep alert to, and have knowledge about--

a. New supervisory principles and practices. The job should never become static. Workshops and short courses are desirable as in-service training.

b. New developments in research in fields affecting agriculture.

c. Changing economic and social conditions affecting farm people.

d. Opinions of farm people regarding new problems.

3. Supervisors in cooperation with other Extension workers should be willing to tackle new problems with the scientific procedure in program planning.

a. Study the situation.

Locate sources of authority

Help initiate research

Conduct surveys to get information and enlist more people in studying the problem.

b. Formulate a plan with both professional workers and lay people participating.

c. Assist lay people in organizing for action or to obtain services they need.

d. Continually evaluate methods and results.

4. Supervisory programs should be continually evaluated. Supervision is weak in this area.

At this point may we be a bit more specific. The district supervisor has both administrative and program supervisory functions. The following list of jobs is stated generally. Many of them could be broken down into more specific statements.

We get

the kind of work

we are willing

to accept.

Administrative Supervisory Jobs

I. Finance

1. Assist the director in determining and laying plans to secure State funds.
2. Assist the director in determining budgets and allocating funds.
3. Assist county agents in planning budgets to:
 - (a) Meet current needs, (b) support additional agents, and (c) provide efficient and labor saving office equipment.
4. Assist county agents and Extension committees in special problem cases with county boards.
5. Check with agents and assistant director in charge of finance to keep county budgets operating.
6. Administer supplementary funds for part-time workers or emergency work.

II. Personnel

1. With other supervisors, interview, screen and select men and women candidates for county positions.
2. Recommend and present candidates to county committees and follow through on details of appointment.
3. Plan an induction program.
 - (a) Training with other agents, (b) training in the State office, (c) training by specialists, and (d) working out a division of labor and understanding of the job in the county.
4. Direct the rating of staff for whom supervisor is responsible.
5. Assist the director in developing and administering promotions through salary adjustments and recognition.
6. Assist agents in adjusting to other work when necessary.
7. Assist agents in selecting and maintaining an efficient secretarial staff.

8. Listen patiently to agents' personal and professional problems and give encouragement to thinking through own problems.
9. Give attention to other matters involving working conditions and morale.

III. Offices

1. Assist agents in planning for, securing and maintaining desirable and adequate offices and meeting rooms.
2. Assist agents in planning for and securing efficient office equipment, filing systems and visual educational equipment.
3. Assist agents in establishing and maintaining good office management procedure.

IV. Relationships

1. Promote cooperative working relationships among members of county staff and between members of the county staff and State staff.
2. Assist agents in developing and maintaining counselling groups of lay persons for program policy determination.
3. Assist agents in correlating with other agencies where Extension has a function.
4. Promote cooperative relationships between the Extension staff and organizations and agencies.
5. Promote understanding of Extension among research and resident instruction and the leadership of the college in agricultural affairs of the State.

Program Supervisory Jobs

I. Training--Teaching Agents to teach people.

1. Establish programs for professional improvement of agents.
 - a. Assist agents in working out a program of study when their turn comes up for a leave.

- b. Encourage agents to participate in summer and other short courses for Extension workers.
- c. Plan subject matter training with specialists for agents.
- d. Plan conferences that provide training in methods of teaching and evaluation.

II. State level planning.

- 1. Assist the director and program supervisors determine the broad basic program policies for the State.
- 2. Bring to the director, program supervisors and specialists current field situations, needs and problems.
- 3. Cooperate in planning State-wide activities that benefit all districts.

III. Establishing a well balanced rural program in each county.

- 1. Assist agents in developing and maintaining a strong program policy group that will:
 - (a) Keep programs suited to the needs of the county, (b) keep a balance between pressure groups desiring assistance at the same time, (c) recommend proposed action if not in Extension field, to some other group or select a special committee to take specific action, and (d) develop a long time agricultural program for the county.
- 2. Assist agents in teaching farm people how to organize themselves to solve their own problems.
- 3. Assist agents, county by county, in formulating the yearly plan of work.
 - (a) Get a plan in writing; (b) see that divisions of labor among agents is understood; (c) help appraise the plan of work in relation to the long time agricultural program for the county; and (d) assist agents in securing subject matter assistance requested in the plan of work.
- 4. Conduct joint conferences with other supervisors of all agents in the county to appraise progress, methods and next steps.

IV. Acquaint the professional and lay leadership with the county-State-federal cooperative responsibility principle of Extension work. The Extension program belongs to the people. Our job is to assist them with techniques to accomplish their purposes,

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE DIRECTOR'S OFFICE

Dan M. Braum

The purpose of this talk is to analyze the job of an Extension director with regard to his immediate office. Also to explore some of the methods by which he improves his effectiveness. It is assumed that we are interested in a dynamic administration and not a static or declining one. The following are considered indicators of a dynamic administration.

1. Assumes new duties readily.
2. Recognizes and advertises new problems, and recommends solutions.
3. Frequent reorganizations without serious disruption of business.
4. Aggressive--tends to absorb other organizations.
5. Uses new methods and ideas freely.
6. High rate of flow of facts and information up, down, and across the organization's structure.
7. Infectious enthusiasm permeates employees.
8. Recognizes human element as very important.

It is implied that an organization that exhibits many of the opposite of these indicators is at least static and probably declining.

A dynamic administrator is one who accomplishes the following administrative duties in a highly satisfactory manner.

1. Sets general objectives, program goals, and establishes general policy.
2. Sets major positions, defines duties and authority, and picks personnel therefor.
3. Issues general instructions and supervises immediate employees.
4. Directs inter- and intra-organizational coordination.
5. Evaluates program and efforts of top line and staff officers.

6. Reports to the public results obtained by his organization.
7. Generates enthusiasm, inspires and challenges employees.
8. Explores future possibilities for improvements.
9. Supervises the preparation of the budget.

A casual review indicates that the administrative duties of Extension directors will vary greatly from State to State. The size of the State, the intensity of farming within the State, the relative strength of the Extension Service, its place in the college organization, and the manner in which the service is organized are all factors in causing variance. The last factor often determines the level of responsibility and the sphere of influence. There is no doubt that in practically every State the director's job calls for more hours in a day, more days in a week, more physical and mental capacity and endurance than should be expected of any human being. Therefore, we should look at some of the ways a director can assign his lesser responsibilities; methods he can use to multiply himself. Certainly no two directors can use the same methods. Each can analyze his job and decide what he must do himself and what will be better done if put into other hands. Below are listed some of the ways a director may assign duties to relieve himself of details and conserve his time for more important functions he alone can perform.

1. Extensive use of a good assistant director to:

- Supervise the office force.
- Prepare budget.
- Handle routine correspondence and details.
- Prepare important correspondence for signature.
- Act as personnel officer.

2. Extensive use of an administrative assistant to:

- Handle details of budget and purchases, supervise financial and personnel records, review county financial records, etc.

3. Assigns special duties to district agents .

- Examples: one takes schedules, another annual conferences, another reports, retirement, etc.

4. Sets up line responsible committees.

- Example: committee on selection of personnel.

5. Uses other college staff.

- College business office, budget office, other college departments.

6. Holds conferences of top staff once a week, restricted membership, well planned, agenda based on material or questions accumulated throughout the week.
7. Well developed district conferences of county staff and division conferences of State staff.

In order to get some suggestions about the characteristics and skills that might be valuable to Extension directors we are reviewing some factors that have been experimentally proven to be valuable to insurance branch managers. The most constructive attitudes of branch managers were (a) unselfish in dealing with agents, (b) interested in the agent's success, (c) cooperative with agents, (d) sympathetic with agents, and (e) sincere in dealing with agents. The only factor about the manager's personality that seemed significant was his enthusiasm about his work. Among the manager's professional skills, the most important were capable planner and organizer, capable recruiter, trainer and office manager.

One of the very interesting factors about the study was the big difference in opinion the manager held of himself and the opinion his salesmen had of him. The better the manager the narrower the difference between his and his employees appraisal.

There was the general observation that the managers of the superior agencies were three times as willing to help and three times as able to help their salesmen as the mediocre agencies.

As a working definition and a method of applying the scientific method to management, the following tentative statement is being developed by Morris L. Cooke, Harlow S. Person, and myself.

"Scientific management exists primarily as a concept and a mental attitude toward achievement and as such is undefinable. It exercises a basic systematic technique for discovering and establishing objectives, plans, standards, methods, schedules, and controls of an enterprise, all within the laws of each situation and in an environment of high morale, thereby exemplifies the best use of human and material energy."

An application of this technique becomes an orderly method of approaching any piece of work with system and confidence and it could well be applied to the job of an Extension director.

*A policy put in writing is
good cooperation insurance.*

W. A. Jump

What is "Financial Administration" - The emerging concept - Evolution from the bookkeeping concept to the concept of broad administrative management utility - Nature, Content and Place of budgetary and financial administration: In the administrative process as a whole - In the total job of program performance.

Budgetary and Financial Administration

"Budgetary Administration" may be defined as an instrument of management, consisting of the processes by which work programs, including the related phases of program planning and coordination, are translated into financial terms, analyzed, evaluated and determinations made and reflected in the form of budget estimates; the necessary funds justified and obtained from the granting authority and allotted or distributed to the proper units; adequate measures maintained for accountability and expenditure control and for assuring at all times that the funds utilized for the execution of the authorized programs of work are being expended in the most effective and economical manner possible, and that the results are analyzed, measured, evaluated, and reported upon in an effective manner.

Where effective over-all administrative management prevails, budgetary and financial administration can be a vital and useful aid in attaining the following objectives, which are of primary concern to every administrator. The statements in parentheses indicate some budgetary and financial functions which help to implement these objectives.

1. Program Planning (the budget-building process - determining the objectives and work plan, and other means most likely to result in their accomplishment - what, why, how, and how fast - formulation and preparation of the estimates, evaluating requests for funds, determining and coordinating the elements to comprise the budget program and the amounts necessary for each, adjusting the proposed work program to budgetary and fiscal policy requirements, etc.)
2. Financing the program work (explaining and justifying the estimates before the internal management, the Budget Bureau and the Congressional Appropriations Committees; arranging for loans or other special forms of financing where authorized; dealing with the Treasury Department, General Accounting Office and Budget Bureau with respect to warrants, apportionments, disbursing, etc.)

3. Assuring effective and economical program execution (financial and expenditure analysis, reporting and control through allotments, apportionments, etc; developing improved management, methods and procedures; grouping of functions; efficiency and economy measures, etc.)
4. Accounting for the proper expenditure of public funds (assuring that funds are expended in accordance with applicable governmental requirements and for the purposes for which they are made available, detailed expenditure control through the auditing and accounting processes, etc.)
5. Measuring, evaluating and reporting upon the progress and effectiveness of the program of work in the light of past, current, and proposed expenditures (budgetary evaluations and justifications, activity and financial reporting, program analysis, development of measurable work standards and similar criteria, etc.)

Budgetary and Financial Administration is not bottled up in a vacuum in accounting offices - Everyone in the organization who obligates or expends funds or makes program plans or decisions that result in expenditure of funds is participating.

Some Basic Factors and Principles

Integrity - Regularity, honesty and integrity must be basic factors in financial administration of public funds.

Public Accountability - Adequate financial administration is essential to the discharge of public accountability - Legal Accountability - Budgetary Accountability - Reporting.

Competence - Sound accounting is the foundation of effective budgetary and financial administration; it is essential to good program administration.

Utility - Good financial administration renders useful service to management and program operations. (If it does not, it is not good financial administration.) For these purposes it:

Reports periodically the Status of Program Funds.

Serves as an instrument of managerial and program planning and control.

Indicates the Progress of the Program insofar as that can be inferred by obligations and expenditures as of any given time in relation to the planned rate and objects of expenditure.

Constitutes a source of useful basic statistics for management and program analysis, planning, and budgetary purposes.
And serves many other similar needs.

Simplicity - Unless this is a constant objective, financial administration (or any other kind of administration for that matter) can choke us to death and its not a pleasant death - the Jeffersonian Accountant.

Economy and Efficiency - Budgetary Administration is concerned with Management Improvement:

Save Manpower

Simplify Procedures

Save Materials

Expedite Operations

Improve Organization

Reduce Costs

Education - Budgetary administration is concerned with the understanding and attitudes of all members of the staff - high and low - big and little - headquarters and field - with respect to the obligations public employees have when they spend other peoples' money - (public funds).

How Administrators or Program Leaders can bring about effective financial administration -

Recognition - The principle of recognition, at the top, of the importance of Good Administration - This affects attitudes and actions all along the line.

Action - The principle of action at the top -

Do something about it.

Designate someone to be responsible to the top administrator - define his general duties and responsibilities - (The Controller - the Budget Officer - the Fiscal Officer - the Internal Auditor - the Finance Director - the Business Manager).

Scope of Authority - the power to question.

Relationship between Quality and Standards of Administration and Budgetary Support of Agricultural Programs -

We Live in a Goldfish Bowl

Public Attitudes Toward Government Officials and Employees

Attitudes of Government Officials and Employees Toward the Public and the Public's Money

The Taxpayer's Concern

Some Illustrative Cases

THE ADMINISTRATOR'S CONTRIBUTION TO MORALE

Paul J. Kruse

I. Morale:

"Conditions as affected by, or dependent upon, such moral or mental factors as zeal, spirit, hope, confidence." Webster

"The net satisfaction derived from acceptable progress toward goals, or from attaining goals." Warner

"Morale means unity of purpose in a group of individuals."
Benge

"Perhaps the simplest way of explaining the meaning of morale is to say that what 'condition' is to the athlete's body, morale is to the mind. Morale is condition; good morale is good condition of the inner man: it is the state of will in which you can get most from the machinery, deliver blows with the greatest effect, take blows with the least depression, and hold out for the longest time. It is both fighting-power and staying-power and strength to resist the mental infections which fear, discouragement, and fatigue bring with them, such as eagerness for any kind of peace if only it gives momentary relief, or the irritability that sees large the defects in one's own side until they seem more important than the need of defeating the enemy. And it is the perpetual ability to come back." Hocking

"For the difference between a languid and a vigorous morale is just the difference between knowing a thing and realizing it. And 'realizing' means seeing its dimensions and its bearings, what it means for the future as well as for the present, for my own action as well as for that of others." Hocking

II. What Contributes to Good Morale on the part of the Worker?

1. Feeling of security in job as long as he does good work.
2. Feeling that he is really a part of the organization; essential to the total effort.
3. Clarity as to his part in the organization.
4. Being able to identify himself with the purposes of the organization.
5. Opportunity to share in shaping policies and plans.
6. Feeling that superiors in organization are always fair and impartial.
7. Knowing how he stands with the "boss".
8. Confidence that promotion is based on a carefully worked out design and not a "chancey" thing.

9. Opportunity to express grievances without fear of loss of status.
10. To be regarded for his worth as a person as well as for his effectiveness as a worker.

III. What Can the Administrator do to Promote Good Morale:

1. Himself manifest high morale.
2. Remember that the work administer derives from adminis-
trare meaning to serve. Same root as minister which
originally meant an inferior, a servant.
3. Recognize that he is basically less essential than the
worker, and exists only to promote the effectiveness of
the worker.
4. Give clear evidence of
 - Clarity as to long-term and short-term objectives of the
organization he serves.
 - Confidence in the possibility of achievement of these
objectives.
 - Understanding of means of achieving them.
 - Confidence in increasing effectiveness of means for
evaluating achievement.
5. Give praise and commendation when merited.
"Flowers to the living."
6. Be ever ready to give credit where due.
7. Live up to promises scrupulously.
8. Always keep the way open for any member of the organiza-
tion to "get through to the top" without risk of
disapproval.
9. Guard against immediate subordinates achieving recognition
and status at cost of unfairness to their subordinates.
10. Distribute special opportunities for growth and recogni-
tion among members of the staff; e.g.,
 - Attendance at national meetings
 - Important committee memberships
 - Important speaking engagements
11. Let it never be pertinently said that he does not
welcome strong men in his organization.
12. Scrupulously avoid grounds for the impression that privi-
leges and advances are granted as personal favors.
13. Make occasions for seeing subordinates under favorable
conditions so as to avoid any suggestions that being
summoned most likely means reprimand.
14. Anticipate appropriate special privileges, not forcing
workers to ask for them.

THE PROBLEM OF MOTIVATION

Paul J. Kruse

- I. What Moves Us?
Why Do Folks Do What They Do?
How to Get People to Do What We Want Them to Do?
Why Does Anyone Do Anything?
- II. (1) Because of the satisfyingness of the activity itself, or
(2) Because of the anticipated satisfyingness of:
 What it will get him
 or
 What it will help him escape, or
(3) Both (1) and (2)
- III. Satisfyingness: A state we do nothing to avoid, often doing things which maintain or renew it. (E. L. Thorndike)
 e.g., Eating when hungry; resting when tired.
Annoyingness: A state we do nothing to maintain, often doing things which put an end to it. (E. L. Thorndike)
 e.g., Eating when not hungry; not eating when hungry.

Satisfyingness and annoyingness relative terms.
e.g., To stay at a meeting may only be less annoying than leaving. It may have little or no positive satisfyingness.
- IV. What do all men find satisfying?
 Largely independent of personal experience
 Two examples of many attempts at answer

(1) <u>Thomas, W. I.</u> New experience Security Response Recognition	(2) <u>Thorndike, E. L.</u> Sensory life Self assertion Approval Companionship
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N.B. You can count on these in all men
- V. What do some men find satisfying?
 Largely dependent upon personal experience
 Money (in an economic society)
 Ideals
 Convictions
 Beliefs, hopes, aspirations
 Habits
 Etc.
 N.B. You cannot count on any such in all men.

VI. Principles of Procedure: If you want to move people to action -

Make the activity satisfying

Either in itself, or

In what it leads to, or

Both

Strive to avoid making the activity annoying

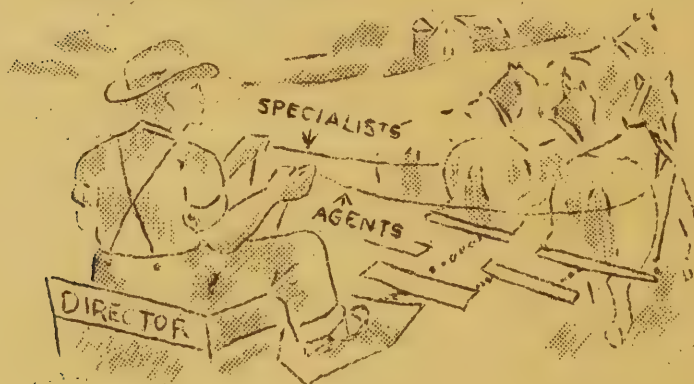
If necessary, make the failure to engage in the activity annoying

Either in itself, or

In what it leads to, or

Both

The Director's Job GETTING TEAMWORK



COMMITTEE REPORTS

Four workshop groups met from 10:30 to 12 each morning and 3:30 to 5 or later each afternoon (1) for more specific consideration of presentations on the general sessions, (2) to consider problems suggested by directors and others not members of the group, and (3) to prepare a report on Extension administrative problems in the respective fields of committee work. Each group prepared its own agenda. The participants selected the group with which they preferred to be associated. One member of the group had been selected to act as chairman and another member to act as secretary. A member of the Federal Extension office had been assigned to act as consultant with each group. Due to Mr. Hearne's illness, Mr. J. P. Leagans of North Carolina acted as consultant for the group on "Effectiveness of Extension Work."

The following four reports are the results of the work of these four committees. The reports are not to be considered as recommendations but rather as viewpoints on which there was quite general agreement—as suggestions that might well receive consideration by a director when problems touched upon come before him for action.

THE JOB OF THE COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

Outline of Report:

- I. Objectives
- II. The Program
- III. Carrying Out the Program

Committee:

A. E. Bowman, Wyoming, Chairman
R. M. Turner, Washington, Secretary
H. R. Baker, Arizona
L. S. Ellis, Arkansas
T. S. Chu, China
H. A. Berg, Michigan
S. W. Hoitt, New Hampshire
J. M. Fry, Pennsylvania
A. Perez-Garcia, Puerto Rico
H. E. McSwain, Virginia
R. L. Wrigley, Utah

Consultants:

W. C. Coffey, University of Minnesota
Frank W. Peck, Farm Foundation
Paul J. Kruse, Cornell University
J. Paul Leagans, North Carolina State College
Chas. E. Potter, U. S. Department of Agriculture

I. OBJECTIVES OF COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

The broad objective of the Cooperative Extension Service is, through educational activities, to promote the mental, physical, social, and spiritual growth of all people and to improve their economic welfare.

The specific objectives are many. Included are:

- A. To extend and apply the benefits of research to farms and to homes.
- B. To train men, women, boys and girls for leadership in the development and execution of their own programs.
- C. To gain a broader understanding and greater skill in dealing with the problems of human relations.
- D. To promote good health by a better understanding and application of the principles of nutrition, sanitation, farms and home safety and the development of needed health facilities and services.
- E. To aid in the effective production and distribution of food and fiber for the nation's needs.
- F. To promote consumer education in the wise purchase and use of farm products and other commodities.
- G. To increase farm income through maintaining and increasing soil fertility and through the use of mechanization, labor-saving methods and other sound farm and home management practices.
- H. To further the development of an effective conservation program of soil, water, range, forest and human resources.
- I. To increase the effectiveness of 4-H club and older youth work.
- J. To promote a better understanding of and a more effective participation in community, county, state, national and international affairs to aid in developing constructive public policy.

II. THE PROGRAM

If progress is to be made in the solution of our agricultural programs, the program of the Cooperative Extension Service must be alive, dynamic and vital. Without such a program, the unified effort needed to achieve the objectives will be lacking and progress will be spasmodic. A properly developed program will bring together the best thought of those for whom the program is intended and those who will contribute to the success of that program.

Such a program will include both long time and short term phases. A change of emphasis may alter materially the long time program but with rapidly changing conditions it is to be expected that both methods and goals may be changed to more nearly meet the changing needs.

A properly developed program requires much careful thought by all concerned. With the program developed, the achievement of the objectives should be accomplished with much greater overall efficiency. Clearly defined objectives, with the careful thought of all concerned, followed by efficient execution by Extension personnel should result in a progressive agriculture capable of meeting the many different agricultural situations as they arise.

There are certain basic principles which characterize a soundly developed Extension program. The following probably are not all-inclusive but are certainly the most important ones. They must be considered if the program is to adequately meet the needs of the people.

These principles are:

1. It should meet the needs and wants of the people.
2. It should be all-inclusive of peoples, areas, problems, etc.
3. Full consideration should be given to background information, and the program must be adapted to the situation in which it is carried out.
4. It must be readily adaptable to changing conditions.
5. It must be educational, with full utilization of farm leadership.
6. It must be critically evaluated and kept current.

A. Program Determination

Men, women, and youth who think independently, objectively, and constructively and who can effectively analyze situations affecting the welfare of the people should be encouraged to take an active part in the development of their program. Participation in the development of their program will bring support to the program. Extension personnel should serve in an advisory capacity.

Those who assist in the development of the program must be fully aware of the needs of the people and their problems. They must have knowledge of various programs being carried on and must be ever mindful of the general welfare of all the people in the area involved.

B. Program Content

The Extension program must be a balanced one, in that all men, women, boys and girls are being served as adequately as possible. Programs may vary from year to year but consideration should con-

stantly be given to such basic fields of work as follows:

1. Marketing Agricultural Products.
2. Conservation of Resources
Human, Soils, Water, Range, Wild Life, Forests
3. Farm and Home Planning
4. Reclamation
Drainage, Irrigation, Flood Control, Land Clearing
5. Home Economics
Clothing, Nutrition, Home Management and Home Furnishing.
6. Production

The above fields of work have characterized the Extension program among adults and youth since its inception. In recent years increasing interest has been shown in certain broader aspects of everyday life. The inclusion in the program of such fields will enable adults and youth to more nearly enjoy those greater satisfactions of life.

This broader field should include:

7. Public Policy
National - Long time Agricultural Program
International - European Recovery Program, United Nations, etc.
8. Health
9. Recreation
10. Family Relationships
11. Community organization and leadership training
12. Home and Farmstead Improvement

C. With Whom Shall the Work Be Done

Extension work should be available to all people living in the country as well as to those in towns and cities. The primary effort in program development should be devoted to rural families. Extension workers should consider all groups of people needing assistance including;

1. Full time farm families
2. Part time farm families
3. Rural residents
4. Urban
5. Cooperating groups

Full Time Farmers - This group has received the major attention of county extension workers in the past. This group provides the framework of much of the leadership with whom the agents work.

Part Time Farmers - Where there are a number of farmers making only a part of their incomes from the farm, their problems may be treated separately. Many times part time farmers are on small places or on poor land. They often find it unwise to copy the practices commonly used by full time farmers or by those on the better lands. Therefore, their problems should be analysed with them by the agents, separately, and a more appropriate program worked out with them. This may be done in community committee meetings or by a special interest committee on part time farming, when specialist help might be present. A farm management survey is sometimes desirable to get background information and to locate case demonstrations of successful farm and home plans in such areas.

Rural non-farm Residents - In many rural communities the numbers of non-farm people living in the country is increasing. Where such families are asking for service from county extension workers efforts to meet with them in groups are vital. A deluge of individual requests for service may be met by meeting with leaders of such group to plan for their educational needs.

Urban - There is a growing interest of people in towns and cities for assistance of the Cooperative Extension Service. The administrative staff should study plans for handling such requests. These plans may involve:

1. Types of programs - home economics, consumer education; 4-H clubs, gardens, lawn and home grounds care, etc.
2. Sponsoring or cooperating organizations
3. Funds needed and source
4. Adjustments in county extension staff organization
5. Coordination with the colleges' general extension program

Cooperating groups - Extension workers will find it of great assistance to know the leadership and to utilize the help of such groups as the following:

1. Farm organizations such as - Grange, Farm Bureau and Farmers Union
2. Civic groups such as Chambers of Commerce and Service Clubs
3. Community organizations, such as PTA's, Red Cross, churches, schools and others.

The relationships with the many government agencies, state and Federal is complex. The list of the agencies of the Department of Agriculture is ample evidence of this complexity.

In addition to the agencies of the Department of Agriculture there are several other State and Federal agencies which may be of assistance to extension workers or with which cooperative programs can be worked out. Some of these are:

1. Reclamation Service, 2. Indian Service, 3. Grazing Service, 4. Fish and Wild Life, 5. Vocational Education, 6. Public Health, 7. Veterans Administration, 8. U.S.E.S. or State Labor Agency, 9. U. S. Army, 10. Regional authorities, as T.V.A.

III. CARRYING OUT THE PROGRAM

A. Introduction

The general objectives of the Cooperative Extension Service cannot be achieved by the staff alone. The objectives will be achieved, if they are achieved at all, through the will of the people to see them as realities in terms of better living and better farming. This means, then, that one of the chief, if not the chief, functions of the Extension staff is that of stimulating rural people to analyze and recognize their own problems and to take steps to solve them. An important part of the Extension program should be that of making facts available on which decisions may be based. The aim is to motivate people to action.

It is believed that the best results will be secured by using those methods and techniques which will provide the people with situations in which they will have an opportunity of considering the facts and making decisions for themselves. It should be clear that responsibility can be developed in local groups and leaders only by giving them the opportunity of assuming responsibility and making decisions for themselves. Sometimes this will seem to be a slow process, but it is an essential process if the people are to learn to accept responsibility with respect to the solution of local problems. This means that the professional leader must forego the temptation to "grease the skids" with respect to a particular situation in order to secure the answer which he thinks is correct.

The discussion which follows is based on the assumption that there are wide variations in Extension Service organizational set-up among the several states, and that a program has been developed in each state that is aimed at achieving the objectives which have been established.

Heavier and heavier demands are being put upon Extension staffs, an expansion of staff is needed to enable the Extension Service to meet these responsibilities. The value of new lines of work must be weighed carefully against the value of old lines of work.

Over against this situation, it is well to recognize that there are now many others in the field rendering services to farmers. This is an asset, but poses many problems in cooperation and coordination for the extension administrator. In part, the problem becomes

one of how the Cooperative Extension Service can best aid the people in utilizing these services for the benefit of individuals and their community.

B. Utilization and Allocation of Resources

One of the important functions of an Extension Director is to allocate, funds, personnel, time and facilities to the various segments of the program. This includes the integration and coordination of the many activities entering into the program so that the sum total of activities may result in a unified approach to the broad objectives to be attained.

1. Adequate funds must be secured before they can be allocated. The State Extension Director has a responsibility within the framework of the Land Grant College Association for securing Federal funds. He is responsible for preparing and submitting his State budget supported by a properly prepared plan of work in harmony with basic Extension legislation. It is also his responsibility to present evidence of the State's ability to meet matching requirements. On the State level he must take the necessary steps to secure not only required matching funds but also such additional funds as may be needed to carry out the program as planned. Public funds within the State may be from both state and county sources. Methods used will vary with the system in vogue within each state.
 - a. Private funds may be used, but they should be accepted only under such conditions that the Extension Service will not be embarrassed or open to criticism.
 - b. Allocation of finances is a matter of budgeting. This can be done wisely only after the Director has a comprehensive understanding of the work to be done. Consultation with responsible members of the staff and with farm leaders is helpful, but final decision rests with the Director.
2. Personnel must be selected according to the job to be done. Among other qualifications, training, experience, and the ability to get along with people should be important factors in the consideration of candidates.
 - a. Allocation of personnel should be on the basis of need for man-power within the limits of funds to provide this man-power. The supervisory staff must be ample to give program and personnel proper integration and coordination. The number of specialists must be in harmony with the size of the program in the various subject matter fields. The size of a county, the number of farms, the population, the diversity of farm enterprises and the importance of its agriculture are some factors which will govern the number of extension workers in a county. Adequate office, secretarial and clerical help should be provided so as to

make the work of the professional worker efficient. Volunteer lay leaders and committeemen must be recruited to help plan the program and give it local impetus and prestige.

- b. Personnel must be trained to render it effective. A program of induction and in-service training is also essential for secretaries, stenographers, receptionists, and clerks. Usually this can best be done by the immediate supervisor. Lay leaders, should also be trained for the particular jobs they are expected to do. This is done usually by the county extension workers sometimes aided by supervisors and by specialists.
 - c. Intelligent assignment of duties adds greatly to efficient program execution. This is more easily done with a large staff than with a small one. In a large staff special training and aptitudes can be used more advantageously. With only one agent in a county, or one specialist in a line of work, this individual must do the entire job. This principle also applies to the office personnel. Volunteer lay leaders should be recruited and used according to the special interest of the leaders. Local prestige is also a factor.
3. Trained workers in agriculture and in other fields of direct interest to rural people are now employed by other organizations and agencies both public and private. Many of these contact the same people as Extension Service. Tactful procedures and policies developed by the Extension Directors can do much to coordinate the activities of these workers with the Cooperative Extension Service. This is especially true in the matter of subject matter given to rural people. If rural families receive essentially the same information from all sources they will be less confused and will have more confidence in the information they receive. Wisdom in handling this situation will result in more rapid progress in the attainment of the objective sought by the Cooperative Extension Service.

C. Organizing the Program

1. It is often necessary to determine what projects or elements of an Extension program should have priority if resources are not available to carry all of them forward simultaneously. It is quite natural that those on the Extension Staff should have their own interest in certain parts of the program because of their training and assigned responsibility and want to see them have emphasis. The Director, therefore, must:
 - a. Decide as to intensity of emphasis.
 - b. See that too many activities are not begun at the same time.
 - c. See that work begun is satisfactorily completed.

2. It is an administrative function to determine the area of responsibility as between:

State and county personnel.

- (1) The supervisory staff should be responsible for coordination, integration and assistance in initiating programs.
- (2) The specialist staff should be responsible for subject matter, for the training of agents in various fields of subject matter, for assisting in the preparation of factual information, and for stimulating thinking in program planning.
- (3) The county staff should be responsible for initiating program planning, developing factual information on which programs may be based; and arranging for local leader participation in planning and organizing the program.

D. Methods and Techniques to be Employed:

1. The Extension Service should take the lead in helping rural people to analyze their own problems, find solutions, and formulate and carry out the plans necessary to put these solutions into effect. Some of the problems are immediate and even of an emergency nature; others provide the basis for a long-range program. The local people should determine the priority ratings of the problems.
 - a. The Extension Service has the responsibility of seeing that the lay leaders and all persons serving on committee are provided with facts, background information and guidance so that decisions and recommendations may be well advised.
2. Intensive campaign methods may be used to accomplish certain programs where the time-element is important, such as: Annual inventory campaigns, rat killing campaigns, etc.
3. Since participation in Extension meetings is voluntary, an effort must be made to present all material in an interesting, understandable manner. This demands the use of visual aids.
4. Studies indicate that as the number of means for reaching people increased, the percentage of families adopting better practices increased. Therefore, repeated impressions upon the individual via many channels and methods are important.
5. The radio is an excellent supplement to meetings, newspaper stories, publications and farm visits. More use is encouraged. Transcriptions, tape and wire recordings permit of information being broadcast over many stations. Specialists

can help county extension workers by providing scripts for their use.

6. Motion picture and slide loan libraries

Many clubs, organizations, groups want film and slides for the educational phases of their programs. The Extension worker cannot participate in every meeting. The motion picture or slides may frequently substitute.

7. Maintain intra-institutional relationships with:

1. Experiment Station
2. College of Agriculture
3. Other College or University departments.

- a. While the Extension Service staff carries to the farms and homes the recommendations resulting from research, it also brings reports and results from the field to the Experiment Station and College teaching staffs. Extension specialists and county extension agents also bring in new problems that come up from time to time out in the State.
- b. As the Extension Service program continues to broaden in scope of responsibility both as to areas of subject matter and groups to be served, other staff members of the Land-Grant Colleges must be called upon from time to time to help in training agents or with the teaching.
- c. Intensive use of non-extension members of the college staff in addition to the Extension Service staff may be used in teaching at such events as: Farmers' week, Short Courses, Institutes, Conferences and Workshops.

8. Cooperating with local organizations.

While the Extension Service will undoubtedly be responsible for the organization and development of many special committees and groups in carrying out its educational program, it should also make use of all existing local clubs, groups and organizations.

These local groups are frequently seeking program material and speakers for special occasions. The groups present excellent, existent media through which to reach many people with the program of the Cooperative Extension Service.

Many industrial and business firms now have trained personnel (frequently former county extension agents or specialists) who are contacting farmers either individually or in meetings called by the county agent or a local business firm. It is highly essential that all workers confer and determine that they agree on the fundamental appropriateness of recommendations made.

PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATIVE EXTENSION FINANCES

Outline of Report:

- I. Authority and Control of Extension Funds
- II. Budget Analysis
- III. Financial Policies and Relationships
- IV. Responsibilities of Administrators in Extension Financing
- V. Financing Central Housing
- VI. Extension Financing in the Future

Committee:

J. C. Spittler, Illinois, Chairman
L. A. Dhonau, Arkansas, Secretary
W. B. Young, Connecticut
H. G. Clayton, Florida
F. O. Blecha, Kansas
T. B. Symons, Maryland
M. S. Shaw, Mississippi
Geo. B. Crane, Ohio
Gordie Gray, Oklahoma
H. O. Stuart, Rhode Island

Consultants:

Fred C. Jens, U. S. Department of Agriculture
W. H. Conway, U. S. Department of Agriculture
W. A. Jump, U. S. Department of Agriculture

I. INTRODUCTION

This Administrative Workshop desires to emphasize the cooperative feature of the financial enterprise that supports this great system of adult and youth education.

We wish to direct our thinking toward strengthening the bonds of cooperation between the Federal, State, county and non-public sources of funds that will lead to the increased efficiency, security, and greater service to the people we serve.

II. AUTHORITY AND CONTROL OF EXTENSION FUNDS

In considering the item of authority and control of cooperative Extension funds, we declare that the employees should be under the exclusive direction of the Land Grant College in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture, irrespective of the source of funds. We would direct attention to the fact that budgetary and financial control inevitably leads to absolute control and direction of activities irrespective of program or public welfare. Therefore, we urge that Federal funds continue to be Grants-in-Aid. This declaration is in the interest of efficiency, economy, and the greatest self interest of the employee. Retirement privileges, salary remuneration, and administrative procedure point to this end. This policy recognizes the legal requirements in the case of Federal and State funds, and the special interest of local programs. The point we desire to emphasize is that the source of funds should not enter the field of administering the cooperative Extension work.

We wish to reiterate that cooperative Extension funds should be inviolate for any purpose other than educational work.

We suggest that a careful scrutiny be made of the cooperative Extension budget. We feel there is an opportunity for simplification in interest of clarity and efficiency. Proper authorities in the Federal office should give attention to this important matter.

III. BUDGET ANALYSIS

In the discussion of ratio of funds to various phases of Extension activities it must be realized that various geographical areas require a liberal interpretation of allotment of Extension funds to meet special needs and requirements of the respective States and areas. It is believed that the funds should be allotted to the following general classification:

1. Administration
2. County Extension work
3. Specialists' work

We suggest that directors analyze their present budgets and consider the percentage of funds allocated to lines of work based on the changing importance of these lines and demands for various services.

It should be recognized that with the increased personnel that costs of administration and supervision should be kept as low as possible.

A. Part Time Specialists

The part-time specialist should be employed only when funds are not available, when work does not justify, or personnel is not available for a full-time person to be employed.

The part-time specialist should understand thoroughly the policies and programs of the Extension Service and should attend staff conferences. He would aid in spreading the importance of Extension throughout the departments and divisions of the institutions. His contribution should advance the several activities of the Extension Service.

Whenever it becomes necessary to ask a member of the resident teaching or research staff to substitute for or assist the specialist, travel expense should be paid with approval of the director from Extension funds.

B. Salaries and Operating Expenses

Much thought must be given by administrators to necessary increases in basic salaries of both State and county workers. The advance in salary rates by the Federal government and in some of the colleges of our universities directs our attention to this increasingly perplexing situation. Ways must be found to keep Extension salaries in line with organizations competing for personnel.

Extremes in salaries between persons in the same general classification should occur only for outstanding ability in the field the worker is to serve.

We respectfully suggest that the dignity and prestige of the College of Agriculture at our State Institutions in this unprecedented period of expansion should be preserved. Any loss of prestige of the College of Agriculture, so fundamental to the general welfare, would be unfortunate.

IV. FINANCIAL POLICIES AND RELATIONSHIPS

The cooperative concept of the Extension Service emphasizes the financial cooperation of Federal, State and local participation. No arbitrary or iron-clad allotment from any one of the above sources is desirable. The ever-increasing demands require increased public appropriation and allotment from each cooperative source.

A. Salaries While on Leave

As the scope of Extension work increases, we believe it is desirable for each State to have a definite plan for leave of absences for the Extension Service staff. Leave may be granted on the basis of years of service and with the approval of the Extension director, the administration of the institution, and the Federal Extension Service, when Federal or offset funds are used. It is suggested that such leave be contingent upon a satisfactory program for professional improvement being submitted by the applicant.

The number of persons to be granted leave at any one time should be determined by the director, keeping in mind the program ahead in the county or in the State.

For 3-week short courses, or workshops, when offset funds are used, it is believed that workers should be granted permission to attend on full pay with no loss of vacation time, the number attending at any time to be limited so the Extension program in State and county can go on without serious interruption. Plans for professional staff improvement require consideration at the time budgets and allotments are made.

B. Out of State Travel

There is a constantly increasing demand for out of State travel for professional training, conferences, workshops and commodity or association meetings that are in the interest of workers and the program. It is recognized that with the demands of the war and postwar period many necessary out of State conferences were required. Every effort should be made to carefully scrutinize out of State travel requests. This is necessary not only in the interest of the individual's program within the State but also in the interest of the entire Extension Service budget.

C. Earmarking of Funds

It is generally recognized that appropriating bodies are more inclined to appropriate funds for specific purposes than to make general appropriations to institutions. Larger appropriations may be secured on this basis and the trend is in this direction. However, an administrator has a greater opportunity to adjust the expenditure of funds to meet the needs of the program and changing conditions if funds are not earmarked for specific purposes in too great detail.

V. RESPONSIBILITIES OF ADMINISTRATORS IN EXTENSION FINANCING

A. Revising State Legislation

Extension administrators have the responsibility for examining State laws for weaknesses and limitations relating to Cooperative Extension work and for taking proper steps to secure desired revisions. The Extension staff should be informed of these conditions and of the steps being taken to alleviate them. In order to maintain morale the Extension director should keep the staff informed on the general provisions of the budget.

B. Reporting to the Public

The committee believes that it is highly important that Extension administrators develop a systematic reporting program designed for the purpose of keeping the public acquainted with the results obtained from the expenditures of public and non-public funds. This implies an adequate evaluation program of checking results against expenditures in order to have factual information for public reporting. Each State has a number of concrete examples of results to use for this purpose.

It is suggested that the directors carefully appraise, and where necessary strengthen the existing systems for such reporting to the public of results obtained in all phases of Extension work.

C. Unbalances and Overloads in Extension Budgets

It is suggested that Extension budgets avoid overloads in respect to the importance of the respective fields and the demands of particular activities. This suggestion is not made for the purpose of reducing any given activity but with a view of securing a wider interest and of avoiding undue concentration of funds in less justifiable work.

VI. FINANCING CENTRAL HOUSING

Extension agents are cooperative employees and in practically all counties they are now housed in public buildings such as court houses and Post Offices or in other space provided by the local cooperating agency. It is the generally accepted procedure for the local cooperating agency to furnish housing where suitable space is not available in public buildings. In view of this situation no State or Federal Extension funds should be used for the purpose of providing and operating central housing facilities for agricultural agencies.

VII. EXTENSION FINANCING IN THE FUTURE

It is generally recognized that the demands made on the Cooperative Extension Service have expanded tremendously in recent years. New requests for greater assistance in established fields of work and expansion into new fields out distance available financial resources and personnel. Extension must face this problem.

Since the Extension Service is a cooperative enterprise, current appropriations from Federal, State and local sources should be carefully appraised to determine whether each source is contributing a fair share to this educational operation. Efforts might well be directed towards securing more adequate participation wherever State and/or local funds are not in fair and just proportion to the whole. An increased total of county, State and Federal funds in the Extension budget is going to be necessary in order to meet the growing demands for educational programs. In the immediate future, the receipt of the third increment of the Bankhead-Flannagan funds together with off-setting funds within the State would help materially in meeting these demands.

The principle that has guided the outstanding success of Cooperative Extension work is to help people help themselves. As a result each State has developed a vigorous agricultural and home economics program which originates with the needs of the people. We must insist that supplementary programs demand a fundamental and continuous process of education to be successful. The Cooperative Extension Service is organized to render this necessary aid and insist upon adequate appropriations to meet its recognized responsibility.

Outline of Report:

- I. Foreword
- II. Statement of Objectives
- III. Principles of Organization
- IV. Functions of Administrators
- V. Organization

Committee:

W. A. Munson, Massachusetts, Chairman
T. W. Morgan, South Carolina, Secretary
L. I. Skinner, Georgia
H. C. Sanders, Louisiana
R. M. Douglass, Minnesota
C. W. Creel, Nevada
G. L. Boykin, New Mexico
L. H. Brannon, Oklahoma
C. Shanley, South Dakota

Consultants:

Charles A. Sheffield, U. S. Department of Agriculture
O. C. Croy, Ohio State University
E. J. Kreizinger, State College of Washington

I. FOREWORD

In the short period of its existence, the Cooperative Extension Service has developed its organizational arrangement and its administrative process largely through trial and error. The Extension administrator has been alert to the experiences of his contemporaries, and whenever and wherever successful policies have been found they have been adapted or adopted by directors seeking to improve the efficiency of their respective organizations.

Many of the administrative problems faced by the Extension director today could have been minimized had present day studies been applied in the earlier years of Extension organizational development. However, Extension is not different from any other organization that has grown into a national institution from a small beginning. It has evolved to its present size and important position in our national educational system by continually revising and improving its administration.

Extension will continue to perfect its organization and its administration toward the goal of maximum efficiency in order to meet the rapidly expanding demands from the farm people of America for assistance in meeting their recognized needs.

This workshop has to a limited degree studied methods and recorded its findings for bettering Extension organization policies and administration. One workshop can only hope to make suggestions and statements that may be used by Extension directors in carrying out their administrative responsibilities. It can forecast, within human limitations, those things that may be done to improve Extension administration in the future. At best, this report is only a guide for the present Extension director, and a document to be examined by future directors in their researches to find out how policies were determined that bring successes or troubles to their desks.

II. STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES

It is recognized that clearly defined objectives in Extension work are essential to successful administration. In developing the detailed Extension objectives for his State, the director must of necessity keep them in accord with the fundamental objective stated by Congress in the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, namely "to aid in diffusing among the people of the United States useful and practical information on subjects relating to Agriculture and Home Economics and to encourage the application of the same." The Capper-Ketcham Act of 1928, the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935, the Bankhead-Flannagan Act of 1945 and all other Federal acts authorizing the appropriation of funds for the support of Cooperative Extension work, reaffirm this basic objective. The committee considers the "Objectives of

Extension Work" listed in the report of Committee No. I as being in complete harmony with the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act, and which, if adopted by State Extension directors, will permit the development of programs of work in keeping with Extension's increased educational responsibility to farm people, particularly, in the economic, social, and public policy fields.

III. PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION

Once the director has developed clearly defined objectives and secured funds, he must of necessity establish an organization to implement these objectives. The State Extension Services were established on no pre-conceived pattern and generally, like Topsy, they just grew. The wide range of conditions, the variations in budget and personnel, and the economic and educational level of the people have resulted in the development of State organizations that vary widely in type. Since this is the situation that exists, this committee has not found it either feasible or practical to attempt to construct a suggested organizational chart that might be called ideal or that would be representative of a majority of the States. It is, however, recommended that each director subject the present existing organizational structure to the light of careful scrutiny in accordance with the following basic principles:

- A. That the organization be kept as simple as possible and designed for direct action leading to the attainment of the desired objectives.
- B. That all necessary functions be definitely assigned to some unit of the organization.
- C. That overlapping and duplication and the resultant lost motion be reduced to a minimum.
- D. That the responsibility of each worker be clearly defined and understood and when responsibilities are delegated they be simultaneously accompanied by commensurate authority.
- E. That decisions be made and coordination effectuated as close as possible to the point of action.
- F. That each officer or senior supervisor have only a small number of workers reporting directly to him.
- G. That the larger the organization the greater the need for coordination.
- H. That each Extension worker in the organization have only one supervisor over him in direct line of authority; that he knows who this person is and reports to him.

- I. That the work load is not excessive and is balanced equitably among units.
- J. That provision be made for a continuing evaluation of the organizational structure, programs and personnel.

The morale of the personnel is of more significance than the structure of the organization - the informal organization more important than the formal.

IV. FUNCTIONS OF ADMINISTRATION

A. Finance and Budget

The Extension director is responsible for the budgeting of Federal, State and county Extension funds within the framework of State and Federal law, and institutional rulings, and for the formulation of policies governing their expenditure. Through his appropriate university authorities he submits periodic estimates of State funds needed and like estimates covering county funds, either directly or through designated staff members, to county appropriating boards. Inasmuch as Committee II has been assigned the responsibility of submitting a report on "Principles of Extension Finance," no detailed discussion of Extension finance and budgetary problems are included in this report.

B. Personnel

1. Determine the kind and number of personnel needed.

If an Extension director were given the responsibility today of setting up a complete State Extension Service as large and as varied as many now are without previous experience as a guide to its formation, the job would be difficult. Since the growth of the Cooperative Extension Service has been gradual over the past thirty years the units of the organization, their size and their job has largely been determined by the demand and need for them. The organization of the Service in the different States has varied somewhat because of the environment in which it has grown. The objectives of Extension work requires that the backbone of the organization be the county Extension agents who work with all farm people in the county. Other sections of the organization serve only one purpose and that is to assist the agents in getting their job done.

- a. County staff. In order to carry on a balanced Extension program, the minimum staff in a county should be (1) a county agricultural agent, who should be responsible for all phases of the work, (2) a home demonstration agent who would be responsible for the work in home economics, and, (3) the third worker should be one who would spend most of his or her time working with the farm youth program. As further agents are employed in the county they should be specially trained to handle specialized phases of the county program.
- b. Specialist Staff. The size of the specialist group needed depends upon the number of counties served, the training of the agents employed and the number of special fields needed to service the agriculture of the State.

The method of employment of specialists may also determine the number needed. If used on a district basis more would be needed than if used over the entire State.

Funds available will limit the number of specialists. Since the county Extension agents are the backbone of the organization, curtailment of specialists in favor of county workers may be necessary.

- c. Administration Staff. The director has two important groups who work closely with him in administering Extension work.

The Administrator's Service group includes the assistant director, fiscal officer, a program leader or coordinator, an evaluation leader, and in some cases an information section. This group is directly responsible to the director and does not have line responsibility.

The Supervisory group is of utmost importance to the director in the administration of his field force. Since they are administratively responsible to the director the number should be held to a minimum to still give adequate supervision. Supervisors should be assigned districts where practical and if more than one is employed in a district the agricultural agent supervisor should be given the over-all responsibility of coordination and finances.

2. Selection of Personnel.

Wise selection of personnel is one of the most important functions of Extension administration. The effectiveness of the Extension Service in doing the work for which it is designed is dependent upon the competence of the people in the organization.

The administrator should seek the aid of his assistants and supervisors in recruiting and in passing final judgment on prospective employees. It would be wisdom on the part of the director to authorize the supervisors to recruit and select the personnel they will supervise. There, of course, will be consultations and the director will give final approval. This process should bring about better working relations. Another factor to consider is how the applicant will fit in with and be accepted by the group with which he will have to work closely. One governing principle is to be sure a person wants to do Extension work. The job of selection will be facilitated if a list of qualifications is carefully prepared for each major type of employee. These standards should be maintained even in periods of shortages of candidates. When a prospective employee is being considered for a specific job he should be viewed closely for qualities that will fit him for that job as well as general qualifications for Extension work such as:

- (a) Satisfactory background, (b) potential ability, (c) training for the job, (d) character, (e) physical fitness, (f) versatility and adaptability, (g) spirit of cooperation, (h) power of expression, (i) willingness to take supervision, (j) initiative, (k) self confidence, (l) willingness to work, and, (m) leadership.

It might be well to assume that a vacancy is better than a misfit person in a job.

3. Training Personnel.

The report of the Extension Administrative Workshop held at the University of Wisconsin in 1946 very clearly and completely covers this field. This committee has nothing further to add except to encourage the adoption of these suggestions. It is recognized, however, that stronger stimulation than just a desire for further training is necessary. Personal encouragement by the directors and supervisors of selected personnel each year may help but other incentives may also be necessary.

4. Compensation.

In general, Extension employees should be paid a salary commensurate with the responsibility assigned them and the manner of their performance and in so far as possible in line with similar work in other fields. The salary scale, however, will be affected by the funds available, and also a number of other factors which will vary from State to State.

- a. Salary standards. In so far as practical a standard salary should be established for each type of work in the organization. However, there will need to be some scale of pay within each group that will recognize efficiency, experience and length of service.
- b. Provision for advancement. Every worker performing meritorious service is entitled to advancement. The feeling that a position is static will destroy initiative and effectiveness of an Extension worker.

Performance records of all eligible personnel should be studied carefully by the director and supervisors when there is a vacancy to be filled. Then the most competent and qualified person should be promoted. Qualified persons with the greatest length of service and most adequate training should be given first consideration, but these should not be the determining factors alone. Advanced positions should always be filled with people within the organization insofar as is consistent with the best interests of the service.

- c. Security benefits. The stability and morale of the Extension organization will be greatly enhanced if all employees can be provided with:

- (1) An adequate retirement program
- (2) Group life insurance
- (3) Group hospital insurance, including surgical and medical care.
- (4) An adequate leave program: Annual leave, sick leave and leave for advanced study.

C. Supervision

In addition to the generally accepted functions of Extension supervisors, new demands by farm people, increased county and State staff, and increased public relations responsibilities make it imperative that the Extension director share administrative responsibility with the supervisors. For a statement

of this adjustment we reaffirm the report of the Administrative Workshop at Madison, Wisconsin in 1946 as follows: "It is believed that a more direct line of organization is necessary between the director's office and the county offices to handle administrative matters. These could be grouped as follows:

1. Financial matters - budgets and financial reporting and arrangements.
2. Assist in selection of county staff personnel.
3. Coordination and balance of program.
4. Public relations in the counties.

These could be handled by:

1. Setting up a position to combine these activities in one person.
2. Assigning these duties to one supervisor or supervisors on a district basis.

Whichever way this is accomplished it should be recognized that administrative matters should go through one person. It should also be made clear that other supervisors would thereafter confine their activities to program supervisory functions without including administrative duties. There should be frequent consultation and close cooperation among various supervisors. Agriculture and home economics work on both adult and junior levels and are the combined responsibility of the entire Extension staff because:

1. Leaders in these fields perform specialized functions.
2. They are administratively responsible to the director.
3. They work cooperatively with specialists and each other and perform supervisory functions in their respective fields.
4. These leaders assume administrative duties as assigned by the director. Good policy will provide only one line of administrative authority between State and county offices."

To follow through with this suggested line of administrative responsibility it is suggested that in a county with two or more agents, one agent be designated as administratively in charge.

The following procedures may make supervision more effective.

1. The director should use the consultative process with supervisors in policy formation.

2. The director should initiate a professional improvement program with and for supervisors to provide adequate training for the changing demands of the job.
3. Periodic staff conferences of the supervisors with the director will serve to keep the director informed of administrative problems and results.
4. For supervisory positions that are to be filled the supervisory staff and the director should observe supervisory aptitudes on the part of field workers and develop a plan of succession before vacancies occur.

D. Physical facilities.

Extension workers should be provided with the necessary equipment and facilities to enable them to perform efficient service.

1. Offices

a. Headquarters

- (1) Extension personnel at headquarters should be housed so as to provide convenient contact among subject matter specialist, administrators, and supervisors.
- (2) Private offices should be provided for each member of the staff.
- (3) Travel and subsistence allowances should be provided sufficient to cover the necessary field work of all members of the State staff.
- (4) The latest, most modern equipment and facilities in visual aids, radio transcriptions and illustrative materials should be provided.
- (5) Provision should be made for adequate work rooms, and storage space.
- (6) Provide for properly equipped conference rooms for small committees and staff conferences.
- (7) Provision should be made for obtaining necessary reference materials for the entire staff, State and counties.

b. Field offices - ideal provision would include:

- (1) Private office for each agent, preferable adjacent to each other in the same building.
- (2) Adequate stenographic and clerical help.
- (3) Adequate travel and subsistence.
- (4) Proper facilities for the use of modern teaching methods and materials.
- (5) Adequate office equipment and office supplies.
- (6) Adequate reception rooms.
- (7) Office should be easily accessible to the public.
- (8) Adequate conference rooms and access to adequate auditorium.

c. Technical equipment

- (1) Such technical equipment should be provided as is found necessary for county workers to meet the demands for assistance in the counties.
- (2) Arrangements should be provided for speedy repair and replacements.
- (3) Adequate provision should be made for rapid handling of both incoming and outgoing mail.

E. Development and Determination of Policies of Operation.

For the purpose of this report a policy is an established course of action to govern Extension people in carrying on their work. It is a device by which administrators project their personality and attitudes throughout an organization.

Policies should be determined and adopted only after consultation with those most directly affected and where its effect within and without the organization has been carefully considered. The final decision on adoption must rest with the top administrative official. To promote morale and uniformity of performance, the entire personnel of the organization should be informed by a clear cut written statement of policies.

The following are a few of the more important matters upon which definite policies should be formulated and adopted:

1. Qualifications of personnel and procedure of appointment.
2. Responsibility and authority of all members of the staff.
3. Working conditions with respect to salary increases, promotions, retirement, sick and annual leave and for advance study.
4. Relationships with college departments regarding program planning and cooperative program execution.
5. Relationships with the public.
6. Authority and management in the county office.

Policy formation should remain in the field of broad over-all courses of action rather than in the details of work performance where it would more likely be a hindrance than an aid to efficiency.

F. The development of the State plan and program of Extension work is of primary importance in order that

1. Goals and objectives may be established for each Extension worker, each unit of Extension workers, and for the organization as a whole.
2. Measurements may be applied to check progress toward the attainment of these goals and objectives.
3. College authorities and State and Federal government authorities may be continually informed as to the program and objectives of the Cooperative Extension Service. The field of building Extension programs is referred to in the report of Committee No. I.

G. Relationships.

Because of the cooperative nature of the Extension Service and the Extension program, it is desirable that the Extension director and his staff maintain good relationships with (1) the public, including farm people, urban people, farmers' organizations, civic groups, public officials, the press and radio and other individuals and groups; (2) the Land Grant Institution of which his organization is a part; (3) county, State, and Federal agencies; and (4) among the personnel of his own organization.

1. Relationships with the Public:

The Extension Service needs at all times to keep the public including all public and elected officials, the press and radio, informed about its services and the

benefit accruing to all the people from such services, whether they be engaged in agriculture, homemaking, industry, commerce, or banking.

A large number of farmers' organizations depend upon the Extension Service for information and counsel. In like manner the Extension Service looks to these farmers' organizations for help in building an Extension program to fit the needs and wants of farm people. Farm people need strong, active organizations through which they can collectively express their needs and promote their interest, and close cooperation between the Extension Service and farm people in developing and maintaining such organizations is desirable.

2. Institutional Relationships

The Extension Service being a part of the Land Grant College, the Extension director should coordinate the activities of Extension workers with those of the officers and staff members of the college in order to give the people of the State the united service of the institutions.

For accuracy and unity of subject matter and the up-to-date information of all concerned, close contact and coordination should be maintained between Extension workers on one hand and the agricultural research and teaching staff of the institution on the other.

3. Public agencies with which the Extension director should establish and maintain cooperative relationships are those of the Federal government, State government, and county governments administering agricultural programs, or whose work has a close relationship to agricultural programs. The relationships of the Extension Service to such public agencies need to be based upon an attitude of helpfulness and cooperation if farmers, farm homemakers, and young people are to derive the maximum benefit from them.

4. Personnel Relationships

Harmonious and cooperative relationships among Extension workers within a State Extension Service are necessary if the organization is to function efficiently. It is the job of the director to establish and maintain the framework for good internal relationships through (1) clear statements of policies; (2) definite delineation and allocation of duties and responsibilities; (3) clear lines of supervisory authority; (4) provision for necessary conferences of Extension workers; and, (5) a sympathetic and cooperative attitude toward all members of his staff.

H. Reporting

The Extension director is a public official, and, as such must account for the use of, and the results obtained from the funds appropriated for the conduct of the Extension program. He is responsible to the college authorities, the Governor of his State, the United States Department of Agriculture, the counties and the public for accurate reports of the achievements of his staff in terms that indicate progress toward the objectives specified in the State and Federal laws.

Reports to the director of extension by staff members are essential. Such reports help staff units and individual staff members to measure accomplishments in their respective fields of work. Such reports coming to the director through his appropriate leaders and supervisors should be summarized and analyzed, to give a full picture of the work and accomplishments of the entire Extension organization. Reports are extremely valuable as information sources usable by the director in keeping himself and all segments of the public informed as to the progressive accomplishments of Extension work. They also enable his staff members to understand the scope of the whole Extension program. It is the suggestion of this workshop that all county reports of Extension work be summarized at the State level and that this summary be transmitted to the U. S. Department of Agriculture Extension office as the only report of county Extension work from the State.

I. Evaluation

Evaluation is a process of vital importance to the administrator. This is because the administrator needs to determine the value or the strength or the worth of all segments of the Extension Service. The administrator evaluates in terms of organization of staff, correct policies, personnel, programs, plans, equipment and expenditure of funds.

He does this to:

1. Test the weakness and the strength of his organization.
2. Provide conditions within the organization to stimulate the worker.
3. Correctly inform the public and appropriating bodies.
4. As a process for guiding administration at all levels of operation.

Increased interest in Extension evaluation as a basis for improving Extension work is evident as in recent years much work has been done in this field. Postwar conditions and other changes of the times are leading administrators to take stock and to analyze past achievements and methods as a guide for improvement in future years.

The principle of evaluation is sound. It is a process by which values of the Extension Service are ascertained. It is recommended that State administrators of Extension work give this more emphasis and encourage its use. The matter of evaluation is treated more fully in the report of Committee No. IV.

V. ORGANIZATION

A. Integration in the College:

In the memorandum of understanding with reference to relations between the Land Grant Colleges and the United States Department of Agriculture, the college agreed to organize and maintain a definite and distinct administrative division for the management and conduct of Extension work. As the colleges, including the division of agricultural Extension have grown, college administrators in some cases have felt the need for a more complete integration of the division of Extension within the college. Various methods have been used to effectuate such integration.

With such a wide field of activity serving many voluntary groups and individuals who assist with program determination and execution, it is highly desirable that the Extension organization be kept simple, with a direct approach and with authority to make decisions as near to the point of action as is possible.

Extension administrators should seek ways of making the whole Extension Service fully cooperative with teaching and research personnel. However, it would appear to be sound administration for the Extension Service generally to have a head which could give full time to the administrative functions of the office.

B. Organization of Director's Office:

The Extension director is charged with a multiplicity of duties, the effective execution of which can only be accomplished by wise and careful delegation of certain responsibilities to appropriate members of the staff. The effectiveness of the administrator will be greatest if he reserves for himself only those duties which cannot be delegated. His goal should be to so free himself from detail that there is a maximum of time available for planning, policy determination, evaluation, and public relations. It is in this capacity that he can render the greatest service to the organization and also to the people to be served.

C. Organization of the Staff

Supervisors and subject matter specialists assist in carrying out the policies of administration and providing assistance to the field force in the building and conduct of Extension programs. The greatest efficiency and harmony can be obtained only when there exists a close working relationship and an understanding of programs and objectives among all members of the staff. The major objective is close integration between subject matter specialists on one hand and equal integration between specialists on a common Extension program on the other.

D. County Staff Organization

A well-functioning county staff of Extension workers is essential to successful field operations. The number of personnel in counties has been steadily increasing to meet additional responsibilities. It is suggested that careful consideration be given to the matter of coordination of activities and programs on the county level.



The ADMINISTRATOR

**must be JUST, both to
himself and to others.**

NOTE: Qualifications of different classes of Extension workers are carefully described on pages 109, 112, 114, and 117 of the Report of Extension Administration Workshop, University of Wisconsin, 1946.

DETERMINATION OF EFFECTIVENESS OF COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

Outline of Report:

- I. Introduction
- II. Why Evaluation Is Needed
- III. Evaluation Is Helpful to the Administrator
- IV. Kinds or Areas of Evaluation
- V. Procedures and Techniques
- VI. Organization

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I. INTRODUCTION

Since its official origin in 1914 the Cooperative Extension Service has carried on an ever increasing program of education with farm people. This work has been carried on with too little knowledge or proof of its effectiveness. At present there is over 12,000 professional Extension workers and an annual budget of 60 million dollars involved in this great educational effort. An organization of this size expending large sums of public money, working with a large percent of the nation's families, and recognized as leaders in agricultural education must not proceed blindly.

Since it is generally accepted that the Cooperative Extension Service is the greatest adult educational system in the world it is vitally important that methods of measuring results be utilized to improve efficiency and meet changing conditions in reaching its objectives. History has shown that the Nation's largest and most successful educational institutions, and business and industrial concerns have made available large sums of money within their organizational structure for research to keep up with the times and improve efficiency. Extension may well follow this pattern.

Evaluation is essentially the process of determining the soundness of objectives and to what extent objectives are being realized as a result of the program. Each state Extension Service should have an adequate program of evaluation in order to find out how far the objectives of the service are being realized. Such appraisal would help to indicate improvements or changes necessary to more nearly accomplish the objectives.

There are a number of publications and studies available that fully develop details and mechanics of carrying on an evaluation program with special techniques connected with specific studies. The committee, therefore, has considered this broad field largely from the view point of the Director and how he may set up a project.

II. WHY EVALUATION IS NEEDED

1. Intelligent decisions can best be made after considering all available facts. Evaluation studies are best known methods of obtaining accurate evidence.
2. Present techniques for obtaining accurate evidence of accomplishments have proven to be inadequate because:
 - a. The extension service programs, personnel and budgets have expanded to the point where no one or two staff members can have direct knowledge of the results being achieved.
 - b. Programs have become so complex that more objective methods must be used to appraise their effectiveness.
3. Increased demands for assistance from the Cooperative Extension Service at all levels requires that present programs be carefully appraised before determining priorities.

4. To date no completely acceptable method of determining the true effect of the long time Extension program on a community and the people in it has been developed. Techniques for making this kind of an evaluation study need to be developed.

III. EVALUATION IS HELPFUL TO THE ADMINISTRATOR

1. In making more intelligent decisions as to effectiveness of programs.

2. For establishing psychological security.

Because of interruptions of one kind or another which prevent Extension workers from carrying out their regularly planned work programs, staff members frequently become discouraged. In such cases a careful appraisal of activities may show that more might be accomplished through reorganization of his time, office, etc.

3. In improving supervisory programs.

- a. Pointing out inadequacies in present techniques used.

- b. Selection of jobs needing first attention.

- c. Expand and otherwise improving training programs.

- d. Assignment of personnel.

4. In providing sound basis for public relations.

- a. More scientific evidence to present to college president, board of directors, legislators and the general public. No other factor is as important in establishing constructive and cooperative relations with individual groups or organizations as an understanding on the part of every one of the effectiveness of the Cooperative Extension Service.

- b. Make available more accurate information for reports.

IV. KINDS OR AREAS OF EVALUATION

Since administration has no end except to promote the objectives of Extension work, the ultimate evaluation of administration must be in terms of the greater attainment of the objectives of Extension work. There are many phases of evaluation which contribute to more effective administration. No attempt has been made here to exhaust the list of items which may be usefully evaluated. The attempt has been merely to indicate examples.

1. Personnel

Personnel evaluation is essential to any administrator and more particularly to the administrator of an educational agency such as the Cooperative Extension Service. Extension personnel should be evaluated on the following points in order to determine, not only their value to the program, but the assistance needed by the personnel in getting the most effective job done.

- a. Do they have the desire to work with and for the people.
- b. Do they have the ability to sell what they know.
- c. Do they have necessary technical information.
- d. Do they have the ability to plan with people to the extent that the people diagnose their own needs.
- e. Do they have the ability to plan procedure that will result in the desired change.
- f. Do they have the ability to determine priorities for Extension activities.

2. Program

Any program carried out by the Cooperative Extension Service will be affected by social, economic and political conditions in the United States and in fact the whole world. This makes it necessary that careful evaluation be placed on the following points if we attain the ultimate objective.

- a. Does the program have full consideration for both the people and the soil.
- b. Does the program provide for better farm and home management planning, with the farm people themselves adjusting enterprises to the farm as a unit for the purpose of increasing income, to be used in better family living.
- c. Does the program meet the needs of the local people in the light of national and international developments.
- d. Does the program provide for a better understanding of and more effective participation of the people in community, State, national and international affairs to the end that constructive policies may be determined.

3. Program Planning

The purpose of program planning is to discover needs and to plan systematic courses of action designed to meet such needs

in an effective manner. The program planning procedure should be evaluated for the following points:

- a. Do representative women, men and youth participate.
- b. Is there an interchange of ideas between the people and the Extension workers.
- c. Is the planning based on the desires and needs of the people.
- d. Do the women, men and youth have a full understanding of the action to be taken in their respective localities.
- e. Do the Extension workers recognize that farming is not only a method of living, but is also a way of life.
- f. Are the several projects coordinated into a single farm and home management plan.

4. Teaching Methods

Various methods are used in teaching such as, personal contacts, meetings, study courses, Extension schools, farm and home tours, news stories, circular letters, radio, exhibits, bulletins, posters, office calls, correspondence and telephone calls.

- a. Does the method used influence people in proportion to its cost in time and effort.
- b. Does it stimulate people to take the recommended action.
- c. Is the method selected the most effective with the group to be reached and the subject matter to be taught.
- d. Does the media used provide opportunity for the attainment of the material and human objectives of Extension work.

5. Personnel Training Program

Extension personnel must raise their sights and expand their mental horizons to include educational responsibilities vastly larger than has been done in the past. Consequently, there is need for in-service training and stimulation of Extension workers. After a personnel evaluation program has been established, a full interpretation of the resulting information will furnish a guide to the more important needs for in-service training. Likewise, the interpretation will point the way to improvements and opportunities in pre-induction training for prospective Extension workers.

V. PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES

From the first beginnings of Extension work all those connected with it, and particularly those in administrative positions, have been anxious to ascertain whether the effectiveness of the work has approached the anticipated level. However, in order to determine, more accurately the degree of success which Extension is achieving, it is essential that specific techniques and procedures be developed to facilitate measurement. Methods and techniques of evaluation fall more or less naturally into two groups - the formal and the informal.

1. Informal Methods

Informal methods of evaluation are but a step removed from those processes already discussed as natural and automatic functions of a good administrator. Any method of obtaining evidence which throws light upon the extent to which Extension objectives are being achieved, may be considered as an evaluation technique. Among such methods the following may be listed as available for the use of any administrative officer.

- a. Observation of Extension workers and interviews with those who come in contact with such workers.
- b. Observation of demonstrations, meetings, radio programs and press releases in which Extension workers have participated.
- c. Observation of fair exhibits or other available displays of products grown or processed by those directly exposed to Extension teaching.
- d. Study of such statistics as may indicate increased or decreased distribution of commodities which would be affected by adoption of recommended practices. Sales of lime, fertilizer, seeds, spray materials, and food items, as well as various building materials and items of farm and home equipment may well provide such a basis for analysis of success in certain fields.

Study of various reports which are readily available offers an economical means for evaluation. Those listed herewith will serve merely to illustrate the possibilities. Monthly and annual reports of supervisors, specialists and field agents. Reports of dairy herd improvement associations, breed associations, commodity group reports, statistical reports of crop reporting agencies, reports of sales of farm produce in terms of quantity and dollar value, and processors reports, indicating quality and quantity of receipts from given areas.

2. Formal Methods

Formal methods of evaluation provide an administrator with much more reliable and conclusive information than do informal methods. Inasmuch as the more formal types of evaluation involve a considerably greater outlay in time and money than do the informal, an administrative officer must exercise caution to make sure that the increased cost gives materially greater returns in reliability. Those who plan and carry out the evaluation program should have a clear understanding of the purpose of the operation. If not professional appraisers they should be thoroughly trained in all phases of the job. They should be so schooled that personal prejudice or opinion does not influence results.

Whatever the form of the study, it must be so planned and the individual must be so adequately conditioned to participate in it, that all sense of "scoring" or "rating" competitively is subordinated to the main objective of the study -- the opening up of avenues for strengthening the work of the individual and of the service. The study procedure should be developed by staff participation if it is to build morale rather than to destroy it.

3. Sampling, Types of Questions, and Interpretation

Detailed maps are available on which scientifically selected sampling areas are designated. Members of the staff can be trained and used as interviewers if funds are not available for employment of professional study workers. Experience indicates that any one study should be extremely limited in its scope, and should be aimed at ascertaining the answers to a very few closely related questions. The type of questions used should be such that the answers will provide facts substantially based on clearly indicated evidence. There should be no room for rationalizing either in the answering of questions or in the interpretation of the results.

When using the sampling process for evaluation studies, it is important that the samples be representative and adequate. Otherwise the results may be unduly influenced by one or more variable factors. The extent of the surveys conducted will be dependent upon the resources available for the purpose. It is generally recognized that an evaluation study of limited scope, well executed, is of much more value than one covering a wider field but less thoroughly organized and carried to completion.

VI. Organization

It is most important that the director set up a workable and efficient organization and make available sufficient facilities to do the job.

1. Some Fundamentals That Need to be Considered

In implementing the evaluation program the following are some principles to which the director should give attention:

- a. Evaluation is an integral part of an Extension program.
- b. Perhaps the greatest benefit of any evaluation study is the education of those who participate in the effort. It has greatest value only as it is helpful in instructing those who are to be guided.
- c. Evaluation in Extension should provide for participation of large numbers of staff members in the preparation and conduct of the project if it is to result in maximum values.
- d. Extension evaluation, to be most effective, should be guided by persons well trained in the use of evaluation instruments, in the objectives of the evaluation effort, and have a clear knowledge of the objectives of the unit being evaluated.
- e. An evaluation program should be comprehensive, continuous, and designed to serve local needs.
- f. Responsibility for leadership in the evaluation program should be assigned to an individual staff member.

2. Organization and Personnel

To satisfactorily carry out an effective evaluation program, on a long time continuing basis, it seems obvious that the following organizational set up would best serve the purpose:

a. The Position

The director should create a full time position on evaluation and attach the personnel to the director's office as an auxiliary service. Active, continuous administrative support will have great effect on the attitude of the administrative staff and field force toward a more objective appraisal of their work.

The desired qualifications of an evaluation leader are:

- (a) Extension experience
- (b) Special training in evaluation
- (c) Research attitude and analytical ability
- (d) Ability and a willingness to work smoothly with people.

b. Place and relationship in organization pattern.

The leader in evaluation should serve as a source of counsel and information to committees working in the field of evaluation. Some of his primary duties in this field may well be to:

- (1) Become acquainted with and keep current on evaluation methods and techniques.
- (2) Initiate and direct evaluation studies in cooperation with other members of the Extension staff having to do with the improvement of Extension procedure and techniques.
- (3) Assist the administrative and supervisory personnel with the interpretation and application of the results of Extension studies.
- (4) Assist all Extension workers in the evaluation of Extension programs and improvement of teaching and techniques.
- (5) Set up experimental counties for testing various types of Extension organization, administration and teaching method before being put into wide use.

c. Committees

(1) Extension Evaluation Committee

Appointment of a permanent Extension Evaluation Committee composed of representatives from administrative, supervisory, specialist and county personnel is desirable. The general functions of this committee would be to:

- (a) Act as a clearing house on all matters pertaining to evaluation program.
- (b) Maintain a balance within the service on kinds and types of evaluation.

(c) Bring to director's attention policy matters that need attention.

(d) Review and assimilate available material and information that may have a bearing on a particular study.

(e) Make a broad comprehensive study of the evaluation needs of the service for the director's consideration.

(f) Prepare a suggested budget on the evaluation program needs for the director's consideration.

(g) Keep informed and make use of evaluation activities of the Federal Extension Service and other State Extension Services.

(2) Institutional Advisory Help

The director should make adequate provision for the counsel of those people in the Land-Grant College who can assist with the evaluation program. The general purpose of this group would be to advise with the Extension director in determining policy and assist in determining and guiding major activities to a successful application. It is recognized that most universities have various sources of information and people available who can contribute to a worthwhile and well balanced evaluation program. Since the main objective is to improve on our methods of doing educational work with rural people, the college has much to contribute.

It is recognized that the different State Extension Services, because of their size, organizational structure and relationships may find it advisable to vary this suggested organizational set up.

THE STAFF

Dr. Rowland Egger, Director, Bureau of Public Administration, University of Virginia. Served for four years as budget director for the State of Virginia, and during World War II was manager of the Bolivian Development Corporation. Member of several national and international committees on public administration. At present on leave to School of International Affairs, Columbia University. A leader in public administration with much practical experience.

Dr. Walter C. Coffey, President Emeritus and formerly Dean of Agriculture, University of Minnesota. Member of U. S. Department of Agriculture Land-Grant College Committee on Extension Work. A university administrator with a broad understanding of extension.

Frank W. Peck, Agricultural Economist, formerly director of extension and director of the experiment station, University of Minnesota, and later, President, Federal Land Bank, St. Paul. Now managing director, the Farm Foundation, Chicago. An agricultural leader who had opportunity to study extension from within and without.

T. Roy Reid, Director of Personnel, U. S. Department of Agriculture. Has been associate director of extension, Arkansas, regional director, Farm Security Administration, and Assistant to the Secretary of Agriculture. He is a student of administrative matters relating to organization and personnel with much practical experience.

Dr. Ralph W. Tyler, Head, School of Education, University of Chicago. Formerly a member of the Department of Educational Research, Ohio State University. An early leader in the development of the workshop technique and at present a consultant of the Extension Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture. Has had much experience with business training and research programs as well as with Extension workshops.

E. J. Kreizinger, Extension Agronomist, Washington State College. Formerly agronomist with Bureau of Plant Industry in cooperative work with State colleges. Chairman of the Northwest Specialists' Workshop recently held at Pullman. A topnotch specialist with much experience in organizing programs.

O. C. Croy, District Agent, northeastern Ohio. An outstanding supervisor with both 4-H and agricultural experience. Chairman of the committee which conducted the Supervisory Workshop at Ohio State University in September 1946. An experienced student of extension supervision.

Dan M. Braum, Training Specialist, Office of Personnel, U. S. Department of Agriculture. Formerly a member of the General Research Committee, Society for the Advancement of Management. Represented the Society at the International Management Conference at Stockholm in July 1947. Formerly a county agent.

W. A. Jump, Director of Finance, U. S. Department of Agriculture. Is a member on Budget and Finance Committees of United Nations Organization for Food and Agriculture and was a member of the U. S. delegation to FAO meeting in Geneva, September 1947. Has handled the budget hearings before Congress for the Department of Agriculture for many years. Also taught Budgetary Management in American University and the U. S. Department of Agriculture Graduate School. Is the best-informed person in government on financing agricultural programs.

Dr. Paul J. Kruse, Professor of Rural Education and Psychology, and chairman, Graduate Committee for Extension Personnel, Cornell University. Consultant, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Extension Service. Widely and favorably known as an Extension conference speaker.

J. P. Leagans, Program Planning Specialist, North Carolina State College. In charge of the Extension research and training program in North Carolina. Has helped direct regional supervisory and specialist workshops. In Mr. C. C. Hearne's absence, acted as consultant to group working on "Determination of the Effectiveness of Extension Work."

PARTICIPANTS

<u>Name</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>State</u>
H. R. Baker	Assistant Director	Arizona
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REFERENCES

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Appleby, Paul
Ball, Carleton R.
Bogardus, Emory S.
Briggs, T. H.
Bryson, Lyman
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MacCurdy, J. T.
Marx, F. M.
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Pfiffner, J. M.
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Starch, D.
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Urwick, L.
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IV. Other Reports

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1946

APPRECIATION

The Directors of Extension and Associates who have participated in this well conceived and well managed workshop desire to express our whole-hearted appreciation of the excellent program and physical accommodations that have been provided for our edification and convenience.

1. We desire to especially commend the series of lectures delivered daily by Dr. Rowland Egger, Director of Public Administration at the University of Virginia. His insight into the administration of Extension, program building and public responsibility has aroused our vital interest and sustained enthusiasm. We have been likewise deeply impressed by the series of individual lectures by other distinguished speakers as our able leader Director M. L. Wilson; Assistant Director W. H. Conway; former president, W. C. Coffey; former Director Frank W. Peck; Dr. Ralph W. Tyler, the expert on evaluation; Dr. Dan M. Braum of the Department of Agriculture; the leading budget expert, Mr. W. A. Jump; Messrs. E. J. Kreizinger, O. C. Croy, and J. P. Leagans, excellent representatives of the Extension staffs from Washington, Ohio, and North Carolina respectively; and finally the outstanding and leading educational Psychologist of the country, Dr. Paul J. Kruse.

2. We wish especially to extend our sincere thanks to Director H. C. Sanders, Mr. J. G. Richard, Miss Ellen LeNoir, and Mr. W. D. Curtis and other associates of the Louisiana Extension Service for their unending southern hospitality and many courtesies to make our stay in this great State pleasant and profitable. We are indebted to President H. W. Stokes of the Louisiana State University for his generous welcome and thought provoking address. The banquet and reception extended by the University were outstanding features of entertainment and hospitality. We likewise desire to express our appreciation and enthusiastic satisfaction for the unusual recreational trip to New Orleans and other similar visits around Baton Rouge, especially the inspection of the great State University and the Standard Oil Refinery. We also desire to recognize the courtesies and convenience extended by the hotel management.

3. We therefore adjourn this workshop with a deep feeling of helpfulness and grateful appreciation to our Washington representatives Messrs. Fred C. Jans, Karl Knaus, Charles E. Potter, and Charles A. Sheffield for their kind attention to every detail of the workshop.

4. We finally wish to register our appreciation to the Farm Foundation and its Managing Director Frank W. Peck who assisted in making this workshop possible.

Respectfully submitted,

W. A. Munson

J. M. Fry

T. B. Symons

1. The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the country and the progress of the work during the year.

2. The second part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year and the progress of the work during the year.

3. The third part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year and the progress of the work during the year.

4. The fourth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year and the progress of the work during the year.

5. The fifth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year and the progress of the work during the year.

6. The sixth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year and the progress of the work during the year.

